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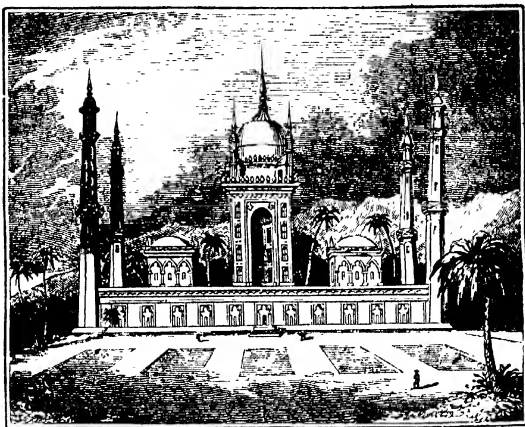
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THE ORIENTAL HERALD.

No. 55.—JULY, 1828.—VOL. 18.

NEW WORKS RELATIVE TO INDIA AND THE EASTERN WORLD.

WE remember well; that, at the period, when 'The Oriental Herald' was first published, in 1824, it was a matter of extreme difficulty to find one good or interesting work published on India, in a quarter: and our principal labour then was to search for materials, and make the utmost of those within our reach. Since that period, a very great and beneficial change has taken place in this particular. Now, new and important works on India and the Eastern World appear almost every month; and sometimes, as in the present case, in such rapidity of succession, that we find it impossible to notice them all as they are issued from the press; and are compelled to make a selection, for the purpose of confining our earliest and most lengthened reviews, to those we deem most important, reserving the others for subsequent examination and less extended notice.

Among the works now before us, of each of which we desire to give some account to our readers, of the "Second Part of Mr. Rickards's India,"—"Colonel Briggs's Letters addressed to a Young Friend in India,"—"Mr. Crawford's Journal of a Mission to Siam,"—and "A Further Inquiry into the Expediency of applying the Principles of Colonial Policy to the Government of India, and of effecting an essential change in its Landed Tenures, and in the character of its Inhabitants."—If we attempted a regular review of each, in one Number of our Publication, we should not only exclude all other topics, which we know would be highly injurious to its general interest; but we should find ourselves so restricted in space as to be able to do justice to neither. We prefer, therefore, giving a very brief character of the first three of these works, reserving our full review of them to a future period, and confining our lengthened strictures and extracts to the last of the four enumerated; deeming it, as we do, of the greatest political importance, and

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especially most desirable to be well before the public before the Parliament separates, that it may furnish materials for thinking, during the recess, to those who will be called on in the next session to go into the inquiry which Sir James Mackintosh has pledged himself to institute into the general state of India, and the changes to be effected in its system of Government when the present charter of the East India Company expires. The other works can be better reserved than this: we shall, therefore, return to them again. But we shall still offer a few words on each, before we pass them by even till then. And first, of Mr. Rickards's: The object of this Second Part of his work on India, is to give an 'Historical Sketch of the State and Condition of Native Indians under former Governments,' and to show that in the defects of these alone are to be found sufficient reasons for the present state of ignorance and wretchedness in which the population of India are found, and from which nothing but a better government can raise them. In this Mr. Rickards has completely succeeded, and adduced such a body of unquestionable evidence, as must satisfy the most sceptical. We cannot resist giving the conclusion of his summing-up; where, after the evidence produced to show that misgovernment invariably produces poverty and misery, he says:

'If, then, the causes here assigned produce universally the same effects, why seek for others in India, where the rule of tyrants, justly called the scourge of the human race, has, from the beginning of history to the present hour, had its fullest sway?

'But if the reader can doubt the facts above detailed, or the conclusions thence deduced, because they have occurred in a far distant clime, whose history he may not have familiarly contemplated; let me implore him to turn his eyes to the existing state of Turkey, or the Governments of northern Africa; under his more immediate observation. Let him contemplate the ferocious spirit with which war has, of late years, been carried on against Infidels, as they are termed, in the Morea. Let him consider the total absence of justice in the provinces; the insecurity of person and property; the avowed practice of piracy, and slavery of prisoners; the pleasant exercise of the bowstring; the happy method of settling differences, and dissatisfactions, by assassination,—sometimes of the reigning prince—sometimes of viziers, pashas, hospodars, and other troublesome officers, and often by the wholesale butchery of unresisting subjects; whose heads are exposed on the gates of the royal palace, for the edification of the people, and the amusement of their sovereign. Let him, I say, consider these simple facts, and then ask his own reason, whether such a scourge, in the shape of human government, does not stand forth to the world, like the upas of the forest, breathing destruction around, and blighting every germ of improvement within the influence of its poison.

'Yet this is but a fac-simile of the despotisms of the East;—10

which the character and condition of the inhabitants have for ages been compelled to bow.

‘Of the real character of the Natives of India, I have already recorded my opinion, “that they are capable of every virtue, and of every acquirement, that can adorn the human mind;” and I here confidently re-assert the same belief. For proof, I appeal to all those who have held much intercourse with the Natives, during their services in India—whether they have not met with numerous instances of great natural sagacity, quickness of apprehension, sound intellect, a peculiar aptitude for patient investigation, and, I venture to add, honesty, gratitude, and attachment to those who use them well?’

‘There are other sects, at the head of which, for energy and talent, I should place the Parsees of the western side of India. Add to these, Armenians, native Portuguese, and Anglo-Indians, and we have a mass of native population whose capacity for moral improvement no man can reasonably doubt; and whose progress—give them but the same advantages—would be as certain, and as rapid, as that of any, even the most civilized and enlightened nations of the earth.’

Colonel Briggs’s ‘Letters’ are professedly intended for the instruction of young men going out to India, as cadets, or civil servants, and for the regulation of their intercourse with the Natives of that country. They are evidently dictated by a very benevolent mind, and contain proofs of much local knowledge and experience, and may, therefore, be read with advantage by the class for whom they are intended. The volume is dedicated to Sir John Malcolm, whose ‘Instructions’ to his assistants, when diplomatically employed in Central India, are bound up at the end of the Letters. The author is an advocate for the extension of freedom to the Natives, instead of that levelling system which reduces them all to the condition of serfs of the soil, and excludes them from all participation in power; and so far we entirely agree with him. But, when we see the Directors of the East India Company opposing themselves in Parliament to all inquiry into the state of India, and to all propositions for opening it to European talent, enterprise, and capital, as well as to the admission of the Natives to the distinguishing privileges of free men; we cannot comprehend on what grounds Colonel Briggs can indulge such a hope as that which he expresses in the closing paragraph of his Preface.

‘A brighter era for India, it is to be hoped, is at hand. More information on the subject of her condition, her institutions, her learning, and her people, is daily pouring in upon us; and there is little doubt that the enlightened rulers of that vast empire will every day more and more see the justice, the policy, and I may add the absolute necessity, of permitting the Native Community to participate more largely in the administration of the Government.’

That information is daily pouring in, there can be no doubt; but this is in spite of the Directors, who have done all they possibly could do to stifle it in the quarter from whence it is most valuable—India itself. If Colonel Briggs is himself enlightened, then the rulers of India are not; for they act on principles the most opposite to those he espouses, and which do his head and his heart honour to maintain. But that any thing but fear will induce these rulers to yield to the wish so benevolently breathed by the author of this work, we doubt exceedingly; though we hope the emancipation of India is not to depend on the virtue of its rulers, either in that country or in this, but on the superior force of public opinion, which will soon, we trust, compel an improved system, in spite of all the influence that can be brought to bear against it.

Mr. Crawford's '*Journal of a Mission to Siam*,' is an elaborate and able performance. There is no man, in all India, perhaps, so well qualified for the production of such a work as Mr. Crawford. His previous researches in the Eastern Archipelago had not only made him intimately acquainted with all that was known of those countries, but had also unveiled to him how much more was yet to learn, and, thus, by enabling him to direct his inquiries into hitherto untouched sources, has added largely to his previously extensive stock of accurate information. The work is 'got up,' as the technical phrase is, in a very superior manner, forming a handsome quarto volume, of about six hundred pages, embellished with several interesting plates, including views, maps, plans, and costumes, as well as with many illustrative vignettes on wood, which add greatly to its value. It can hardly fail, we conceive, to be generally popular; and we purpose, if not prevented by any unforeseen obstacle, drawing largely from it in our next.

We now pass to the last work enumerated in our list. This is an octavo volume of about 300 pages, and is avowedly from the pen of an author who five years ago produced a very excellent work, entitled '*An Inquiry into the expediency of extending the Principles of Colonial Policy to the Government of India*,' &c. &c., from the same publisher, Mr. J. M. Richardson, of Cornhill. Of the original work, we have frequently spoken in previous Numbers of '*The Oriental Herald*,' and always in terms of praise: and this '*Further Inquiry*,' which is in truth an extension of the first, is not at all inferior in merit or interest to its predecessor. It is divided into seven chapters, from each of which we shall extract such portions as may give the general reader a foretaste of the work, referring him, for more complete satisfaction on all the topics treated of, to the volume itself, a careful and entire perusal of which will well reward the labour, and which we, therefore, strongly recommend. The manner in which we shall present these extracts, will render any analysis of the work superfluous; and we have only to express our hope that they will carry to the minds of others

the same conviction that they have produced on our own, and induce all who see these portions to turn to the original volume from which they are selected, for full and complete satisfaction.

‘ *Preface.*

‘ The following pages contain such further arguments, in support of the expediency of permitting the colonisation of British subjects in India, as have been suggested by further observation, inquiry, and reflection, and by the books and documents which have been published, or which have come to my knowledge, since the “ Inquiry ” was written (1820). That free scope will soon be given to the industry of British subjects and their descendants, in India, I am firmly persuaded ; and the signs of the times sanction the sanguine anticipations which I entertained, on that subject, eight years ago.

‘ The only instance, in which I have found occasion to modify former views or statements, is in what relates to the condition of the Ryots, which appears generally to approach much more nearly to that of tenants at will than to that of privileged occupants, as they are commonly supposed to be, or of leasehold farmers, as it was predicted, by Mr. Colebrooke, that they would become.

‘ To those at all acquainted with this controversy it is needless to say, that what is meant by the *colonisation* of India, is something as different from the colonisation of Canada, as the emancipation of the Irish Catholics differs from the emancipation of the Greeks. It never was imagined that any part of the redundant *labouring* population of England or Ireland could find relief by emigrating to India ; but that British landlords, farmers, traders, and artisans, of every description, would rapidly and indefinitely advance the agricultural and commercial interests of India, give stability and vigour to the local government, and conciliate the attachment while they raised the character of the native inhabitants. A note, however, in ‘ The Edinburgh Review,’ (No. XC. p. 346,) must have widely disseminated a singular misapprehension on the subject of the colonisation of India. The Reviewer admits that the author of a work on that subject is “ right in point of principle.” — “ But he has prodigiously exaggerated its importance. A few land-speculators might emigrate to India ; but it is ridiculous to suppose that there can be *any considerable or really advantageous emigration to a country where the wages of labour do not exceed three pence a-day.*” If the Reviewer can show that I calculated on the emigration of a single ploughman, or day-labourer, or point out wherein I have overstated the advantages derivable from the intelligence and energy of many Englishmen already in India, as well as of the kind of emigrants intended by me, and generally understood by all who enter into the discussion, I shall admit that I am chargeable with exaggeration ; but, if he cannot, it will be for the reader to judge whether the Re-

viewer has not "prodigiously" under-rated those advantages, and mistaken the whole ground and bearings of the question. In conceding the "principle," the Reviewer has conceded *all that is required*. Nothing more is required than that Englishmen should be free to expend their own money, and apply their own ingenuity and labour, in cultivating the resources of India. No greater or more complicated effort is required from the British Parliament, than that it should give to Englishmen the liberty of unlicensed resort to and residence in India, with the right of trial by jury in all cases. Without such indispensable protection, no Englishman will invest capital in agricultural* or manufacturing speculations, and India may continue for ever stationary in wealth, civilisation, and happiness. *With* such protection no man can presume to assign limits to the advancement of which that neglected portion of the British empire is capable. It has been well observed that, "in England, the advantages of large capital are evident;—in all our large undertakings, money is as powerful as steam, because, like that power, we are enabled to confine it, and to apply its force on the particular point and in this particular direction which is required. But take from us the laws of our country, and the advantages of public competition, which bind and protect our capital, and money, like steam, becomes impotent as smoke."† The writer of the above passage justly glories in the security enjoyed by his countrymen, which has given existence to so many miracles of comfort, splendour, magnificence, and power; and yet there is a dependency subject to the Legislature of that same country, from the Englishmen resident in which, security of person and property, the only foundation of all prosperity, is withheld!

'On the East India Company, considered as an Organ of Government and of Trade.

'The circumspection with which the work of British legislation proceeds has seldom been more signally exemplified than in the Acts of Parliament relating to India. To take a short step once in twenty years; to adventure at long intervals to relax and untwist some of the cords of monopoly; to be persuaded, after a careful observation of the phenomena that it was safe and expedient, first, to permit private merchants to ship a limited quantity of goods in the Company's ships—then to permit an unlimited quantity of private goods to be shipped in private ships of not less than 350 tons

* 'The name of "Indigo planter" may mislead some into a supposition that Englishmen are proprietors or farmers of the land on which the indigo plant is grown, which they are not permitted to be. They procure the plant on contract, and extract the colouring matter, in which process very little *fixed* capital is requisite. The average value of indigo annually exported from Calcutta is 2,500,000.'

† "Quarterly Review," No. LXXI., p. 99, on Cornish Mining in South America."

burthen—then to permit ships of even a smaller size to navigate the eastern seas—evinces a degree of patience, temperance, and caution, which must conciliate the most timid and satisfy the most prudent. At last the fulness of time seems to be come, when the nation is prepared to receive arrangements, founded on a resolution that the East India Company is in no way advantageous as a commercial or political institution, but rather an expensive incumbrance and obstruction, which ought long ago to have been removed.

‘ It is now almost universally agreed that the Company has long outlasted the purposes for which it was created, or in the fulfilment of which it could ever usefully participate. The first voyages, under Queen Elizabeth’s charter, partook of the romantic character of an argonautic expedition; and for upwards of a hundred years there was, in the frame of the society, a principle of vitality which sustained them under all the vicissitudes of their own fortunes and of national revolution. During all that period their constitution was perfectly adapted to their functions; but, after commercial intercourse with the several countries in the east had been securely established, and after the national force had been mainly instrumental in the acquisition of territorial power,* the genius of the Company became more and more alien and repugnant to the high duties which devolved on it. Without making any extraordinary demand on the intelligence of the age, the dissolution of the Company might have been expected about the year 1784; still more naturally in 1793; still more in 1813; but, though the absorbing interest of the war with France affords some apology for the feeble half-measures of those days, there will neither be that nor any other excuse for inadequate arrangements, at the approaching expiration of their exclusive privileges.

‘ If any doubts remained as to the expediency of throwing open the tea trade, they were removed by the evidence taken by the Committee, of which Lord Lansdown was chairman, in 1821. But, notwithstanding the conclusive nature of the evidence in favour of the removal of restrictions, the impression produced by it is less intense than that which results from the violation of all received doctrines, and of all logic, exhibited by the counter-evidence. To read proofs of the superior activity and economy of free trade is sometimes tedious and superfluous; but, when the monopolist is required plainly to state his pretensions, we cannot listen to them with indifference: they provoke our impatience to correct the absurdity

* ‘ Assuredly the conquest of India, from the expulsion of the French in the seven years’ war to the battle of Mahedpore, never could have been effected without national fleets, national troops, and national authority. Yet we are informed that “our astonishment will be increased when it is added that this great conquest was made *not by the collective force of the nation, but by a company of merchants.*” — *Malcolm’s Pol. Hist. of India*, lib. i.

and remedy the evil. For these reasons, I extract the following passages from the evidence of Mr. Charles Grant, as being more satisfactory and stimulating than any thing that was or could be advanced on the other side.

‘ On the subject of the expensiveness of the Company’s China ships, from their being “ constructed for war and for political purposes as well as for trade,” Mr. Grant observes that “ they serve also to command respect for the nation and its interests throughout the Indian seas, and particularly from the supercilious and despotic government of China. It would be *ruinous* to the Company’s interests to give up this admirable class of ships, and to entrust their valuable China commodities, and the protection of their interests in the eastern seas, to a *parcel* of small ships taken up *fortuitously*, and for a single voyage.”

‘ On the nature of the “ respect” thus inspired into the Chinese Government, and the fruits thereof, he says, “ Although the English experience a *full share* of the haughtiness and insolence with which foreigners are generally treated while in China, yet the Chinese themselves can no more conceal their dread of the military character and power of the British nation, than they can deny their commercial preponderance among the various nations who visit the port of Canton for trade ; and, whatever *advantages* the servants of the East India Company may have derived, in their various discussions with the Chinese authorities, from the opinion which they entertain of the power and commercial superiority of the British nation—*advantages* to which the present state of the whole foreign intercourse may be justly ascribed ; it is, nevertheless, the fact that the ENGLISH in China are considered as the objects of *more peculiar* jealousy ; and hence THEIR whole conduct is watched with *more scrupulous* care.”—“ The Chinese *respect* the wealth and property, the ships and the servants, of the Company ; and that respect is intimately connected with their own interest ; but I do not think they would at all equally respect an individual, though having the commission of the King of Great Britain.”

‘ It is well known that the trade of Canton is conducted, on the part of the Chinese, through the medium of a company of monopolists, called the Hong merchants. It might be supposed, therefore, that Mr. Grant would speak with much approbation of this part of Chinese policy, especially as the profits of the Chinese Company are not fixed, like the rate of dividend of the English Company, but rise and fall according to the result of their several transactions. It might have occurred to him, that, whatever could be said for or against making an exclusive Company the sole channel of foreign commerce, was equally applicable to the English as to the Chinese Company. If the English Company is beneficial to the English nation, the Chinese one must become more so to the Chinese nation, being composed of individuals who are really, and not nominally, mer-

chants; and, if the Chinese system is injurious, the English system must be more so. Nevertheless, Mr. Grant thus describes and characterises the restrictive policy of the Chinese:—"The non-extension of the sale of our manufactures in China may indeed be, in a great measure, charged to *monopoly*,—but to a species of it now unknown in Europe, and framed by the Chinese themselves. Restricting foreigners to *one port*, they will only allow them to trade with *one Company* in that port, consisting of eight or ten persons, to whom all the foreign trade is confined in absolute monopoly; the foreigners not being permitted to trade with any other Chinese, nor any other Chinese to trade with foreigners, unless with the sanction of the monopoly merchants, called the Hong."—"The jealous policy of the Chinese Government; the *strict monopoly against its own subjects*, under which it has placed the trade of foreigners; the narrow channel through which that trade has its entrance into the country; the inadequacy of such a channel for conveying a large trade to distant parts, &c.—all these formidable hindrances to the extension of British commerce in China seem to be quite unknown or overlooked; but they are all realities."—"The Chinese Hong fix among themselves the prices of the imports they receive from foreigners, and the prices of the exports they furnish to them, and, therefore, are in effect the arbiters of the extent of foreign trade."

'Now for the contrast between the barbarous Chinese monopoly and the refined English monopoly. "The India Company," says Mr. Grant, "acts, in its commercial concerns in China, as an individual: it has an unity of counsel and of operation. *It is so far a match for the Chinese Company, the Hong.* Its imports are not depreciated, as they would be if brought in by various individuals, each going to market for himself; in this way one might continually offer lower than another, and the general standard of the selling price of imports be lowered. In the purchase of goods for exportation, directly the contrary might be expected: competition would enhance their prices; and thus the trade, both in imports and exports, be turned against the British merchant, by the number of dealers."—"The Company, from public-spirited motives, have long carried on a large trade in that article (woollens) from England to Canton, at an annual *loss* to themselves; that is to say, they could carry bullion to Canton on better terms, commercially speaking, than they carry woollens; but, from a desire to promote the manufactures of this country, they submit to a certain loss upon the article of woollens, taking teas in barter for them, and being indemnified in the result by the exclusive privilege of selling tea in this country."—"We cannot get the Chinese to raise the price of the woollens beyond what they stood at a remote period, when woollens were, from many causes, much cheaper in this country than they are now."

‘ It is needless to insist that all the excellencies ascribed to the India Company must be possessed by the Chinese Company. The latter, doubtless, are careful that competition shall not enhance prices when they are buyers,—as of woollens from the English, and of tea from the Chinese producers ; nor lower them when they are sellers,—as of tea to the English, and of woollens to the Chinese consumers. They, also, frequently “submit to a certain loss,” to conciliate men in authority, “being indemnified in the result by their exclusive privileges.” In every respect, the one is a “match” for the other.

‘ The quantity of tea annually consumed in Great Britain is less than 25,000,000 of pounds, and it has been calculated, that, under a free trade, allowing two ounces per week to each adult, it ought to be upwards of 60,000,000. Suppose it should only be increased to 50,000,000, the profits of the wholesale and retail dealers, and on the augmented value of the export-cargoes of China, would amount to vast sums, the loss of which may be considered a tax without any kind of compensation. But say that the price of tea has been enhanced only one shilling in the pound (whereof sixpence for duty) on 20,000,000*l.*, here is at once a tax of 1,000,000*l.* per annum, not for the support of the public revenue, but of an exploded and wasteful system of monopoly.

‘ If, then, it clearly appears expedient to throw open the tea-trade, the question of the abolition of the East India Company is decided, unless it should be found that in their political capacity they perform functions which could not otherwise be provided for at less cost : for they profess their inability to continue and to trade in concurrence with private merchants ; so that the mere opening of the trade would be equivalent to their expulsion from it, and deprivation of the only fund for paying their dividends. “It cannot be unknown,” said Mr. Grant to the Committee of 1821, “that the stability of the Company, and their means of conducting the Indian administration, at present entirely depend on the profits of the China monopoly, because they derive no income whatever from the territory ;”—“so that, if the China monopoly were now to fail, they would not have wherewithal to pay the dividends to the Proprietors ; the Indian territory not only yielding nothing to them, but being very largely in debt.”

‘ Since the opening of the trade in 1813, the increase of the exports and imports has been sufficient to falsify the predictions of all the witnesses brought forward by the Company, but has fallen incomparably short of what it would have been if the trade of agriculture had also been laid open. Without colonisation it is impossible that any considerable augmentation of the exportable productions of India, or of demand for the manufactures of Great Britain, can ever take place ; and with colonisation the augmentation of both is incalculable. Besides indefinitely improving the

quality of the commodities which now constitute the list of exports, new articles, such as coffee, cocoa, and cochineal, "might be made to enrich the commerce of the Ganges, and afford a return investment, understated at a crore of rupees."

'In the Report of the Lords' Committee of 1821, it is stated that the value of merchandise exported from Great Britain to India had increased from 870,177*l.*, in 1815, to 3,052,741*l.*, in 1819. In the tables of Cæsar Moreau, I find the increase stated only at from 2,153,120*l.* in 1815, to 3,163,647*l.*, in 1822. But the increase of British cotton manufactures exported to India was from 142,411*l.*, in 1815, to 1,147,393*l.*, in 1822. It was respecting the probable extension of the demand for this article that the principal dispute was maintained; the manufacturers insisting that the astonishing powers of machinery enabled them to produce it in such cheapness as to create a demand for it throughout the whole of India, while the witnesses for the Company, civil and military, strangers to the mysteries of trade, but presuming on what they considered the indispensable advantage of local knowledge, pronounced with more solemn confidence that the few wants of the Natives could be supplied at a cheaper rate, and more to their taste, by articles of their own manufacture. Some specimens of the testimony then recorded may now be read with profit and amusement: Such a scene will never be rehearsed again.

'The following facts exhibit some of the differences which characterise the Company's and the private trade. The East India sugar imported by the Company fell from 40,241 cwt. in 1814, to 11,370 cwt. in 1822; while the quantity imported by the private trade rose from 9,608 cwt. in 1814, to 215,099 cwt. in 1822. The influence of the Company's commercial residents has prevented the superiority of the private trader from being equally conspicuous in Bengal raw silk; but in China raw silk, while the quantity imported by the Company fell from 138,326 lbs. in 1814, to 88,969 lbs. in 1822, the quantity imported by the private trade rose from 12,303 lbs. in 1814, to 133,706 lbs. in 1822.

'Since the Company's dividends are confessedly levied on the people of England, in the shape of artificially-enhanced expenses and profits, and are less than a moiety of the tax to which their monopoly subjects the nation: since it is admitted that, in their commercial capacity, the Company are positively, and negatively, a great evil, it would follow that sentence of dissolution cannot be averted but by showing that the advantages derived from them in their political character are proportionately great. And, if it should indeed be found that the latter preponderate, the result would be without a parallel in any age or country.

'One advocate for the Company is of opinion that a sufficient compensation for these sacrifices is found, not in any peculiar qualifications possessed by the gentlemen who, by dint of wealth, con-

nexions, and longevity, obtain a place in the Committee of Correspondence, but in the check which they exercise on the conduct of the Board of Control. He admits that, in every other department of Government, the strength of public opinion has more than kept pace with the increasing patronage of the Crown ; but, so indescribable and incomprehensible is every thing relating to India, where "the very names of persons, places, and things are as foreign to the ear as confusing to the sense of the English reader," that the control of Parliamentary vigilance and public discussion, which, in all other matters, is invaluable and irresistible, would, in respect to Indian questions, from indifference or ignorance, either fail to prevent abuses, or give an injurious impulse to the measures of Administration. He admits that "the Company, by ceasing to be rulers, and by remaining monopolists, have lost the consideration which belonged to their former character ; while the odium, ever attached to the latter, has been increased." Now, Sir John Malcolm does not propose that they should resume their power, or relinquish their monopoly, but only that means should be contrived for giving to men who have served with distinction in India, easier access to the upper seats in the Court of Directors, and that the Board of Control should interpose its authority less frequently. The functions of an organ so constituted, and so dearly maintained, he esteems of more value than the gratuitous exertions of Parliament and the press.

‘ But the defects of such a scheme are obvious and incurable. In the first place, the Board of Control never can be persuaded to recede an inch from the commanding position which it has held for many years : its tendency must rather be to make its power be felt more distinctly and diffusively from year to year. In proportion to its increased familiarity with the subject, it must become more interested in the success, and more practised in the superintendence, of its own plans : habit, ambition, duty, the strongest, the most constant, and the most honourable motives of human conduct must combine to make it identify itself more and more with the success of the Indian Government, and to stand forward, in the eye of Parliament and of the nation, as the responsible administrator. Secondly, under such circumstances, it is impossible that men conscious of talent, and touched with a generous love of fame, could consent to appear in so degraded a theatre ; the obstacles presented by the fatigue, humiliation, and expense of the first canvass, which Sir John Malcolm seems to consider the most difficult to be surmounted, are as nothing compared with the total deprivation of consideration and dignity in the office itself. An office in which talent can neither find its appropriate exercise nor reward, and can never attract to itself men capable of influencing the conduct of political affairs. Thirdly, whatever may be the private respectability of individual Directors, their want of power, direct or

indirect, legal or moral, renders their attempts to impel or restrain the movements of the Board of Control nugatory. If they are independent of ministers, and, therefore, free to express their real sentiments on all occasions, ministers are as completely independent of them, and, therefore, under no obligation to pay the smallest attention to their remonstrances, provided they retain the support of the King, the Parliament, and the public. The opinions of these three bodies, right or wrong, are those only which ministers acknowledge as a check on their proceedings. Nor are the disadvantages under which they labour, in examining questions of Indian policy, by any means so great as Sir John Malcolm would fain persuade us. The names of "things" may be translated, and made as intelligible to "the English reader" as they are to the Native, or to the Englishman who has spent thirty years in India. If that were not the case, how did Lord Cornwallis and Lord Wellesley, in the first week of their administration, take into their hands the reins of Government with as much confidence, and as much skill and success, as if they had been nursed and dandled into a knowledge of the languages of India, or spent days and nights in their acquisition? How are such facts reconcilable with the importance which Sir John Malcolm attaches to "local knowledge;" an importance which constitutes the foundation of his whole system, and of the principal arguments by which he supports it? It is true that the names of "persons and places" cannot be translated, but what is there more "confusing to the sense" in the name of Tippoo than in the name of Buonaparte? in the names of Plassy, Laswary, and Assye, than in the names of Blenheim, Salamanca, and Waterloo?

'Besides the futility of the objection, founded on the foreign sound of Indian words, it is to be observed that the objection is not applicable to the British community in India. Their knowledge is not acquired through the spectacles of books, but by local observation. Their interest in the subject is not deadened by distance, nor distracted by the obtrusion of nearer objects and louder solicitations. Their ability, therefore, to assist the Parliament and people of England, in thoroughly understanding the circumstances and interests of India, is indisputable. To give to *them* the liberty of unlicensed printing would be to provide the most effectual and cheapest security against local mal-administration which it is possible to establish. But Sir John Malcolm goes further, in quest of a check, and fares worse. He shuts the mouth of the Indian public, and leaves open (because he dare not propose to shut) that of the English public, which, by his own showing, is disqualified for the task of usefully commenting on the affairs of India. He also leaves to Parliament its freedom of investigation with the same acknowledgment of its incompetence, and maintains, at an incalculable expense, an establishment for the express purpose of

controlling the Board of Control, by sending up probationary drafts of paragraphs, on which the latter "hold the pen of correction," running with unlimited freedom and absolute authority; and we may imagine with what spirit an unseen controversy is supported—*ubi tu pulsas, ego vapulo tantum*.

'While the Indian public is silenced and excluded, and that of England depreciated and distrusted, it is evidently the object of Sir John Malcolm to give to men, who have performed approved services in India, a monopoly of claims to hold high office connected with the Government of India, both in England and in India. Since they alone have a true understanding of Indian affairs, and know how far and in what instances they ought to be exempted from the influence of principles which are commonly held to be of universal application, a certain number of them must be active Members of the Board of Control; and, since the Board must be counterpoised by the Court, another party of them must infallibly be Directors, so that half the parterre should just reflect the other. That such persons should be considered eligible, according to their qualifications and opportunities of making them known, for high office in every department of Government is most reasonable; but that they should be esteemed the only depositaries of knowledge regarding India, and that the existence of the East India Company, with its monopoly of the tea trade and its legion of clerks, should be prolonged for the sole purpose of providing comfortable places for them, wherein they are to assist in the drafting of despatches which may not be adopted, and to sign despatches of which they have not approved, is a degree of extravagance to which the well-earned reputation of Sir John Malcolm will never reconcile the Members of both Houses of Parliament, to whom, in spite of their alleged incompetence, the decision of this matter will soon be committed.

'This is not the only instance in which additional experience and more maturity of judgment have betrayed Sir John Malcolm into a desertion of the right path, and bewildered him in a maze of error and empiricism. On the subject of colonisation, and the revenue and judicial systems, the few opinions which he formerly expressed, were founded on sound and recognised principles of policy and economy. Now he shuts his eyes to that central light, and painfully gropes his way amidst barbarous practices, and uncouth usages, not for the purpose of bringing order out of confusion, but of arresting improvement, excluding reform, and perpetuating ignorance and poverty.

'Like every other advocate for the Company, Sir John Malcolm has availed himself of the eagerness with which objections to placing the patronage of India at the disposal of Ministers are listened to, well knowing and avowing that "the alarm taken by the public at the transfer of the patronage now enjoyed by the

Directors to the Ministers of the Crown, has hitherto contributed more than all other considerations to the preservation of the Company." He admits that "it would not be difficult to arrange, without much increase of the influence of the Crown, for the disposal of the appointments of writers and cadets, nor is it of much consequence by whom or how these are selected, provided means are taken to insure their possessing the requisite qualifications;" so that the question is reduced to the quantity of patronage which ministers would acquire by the preferment of public servants in India, and to the practicability of increasing it by the infringement of regulations and Acts of Parliament. These he exaggerates beyond what is warranted by any record of the profligacy of ministers, or the endurance of the public, in the worst of times, insisting that, "though the departments abroad were defended by regulations and Acts of Parliament, numerous inroads, nevertheless, might and would be made upon them." Upon this I would observe, first, supposing arrangements made for placing in other hands than those of ministers the greater part of the patronage of appointment, and that the attainment of the requisite qualifications was made a condition precedent to the grant of the appointment, civil and military officers would continue to be, as they are now, wholly unconnected with the political parties which prevail in England, and preferment would continue to be directed, as it is at present, by the mixed considerations of sincerity, merit, and interest. The balancing of these claims, and the adjudication on each case, would rest with the Governor-General, whose interest as well as duty it would be, first, to insure the success and popularity of his administration; next, to attend to the solicitations of friends and connexions, as far as might be compatible with a due regard to those higher objects. In holding this course the Governor General would be seasonably encouraged or checked by the voice and demeanour of the community, on whose welfare, satisfaction, and applause, he would acutely feel that, after the testimony of a good conscience, his present comfort and future fame chiefly depended. The distance of the scene, too, instead of being favourable to the enterprises of ministerial rapacity, would further protect him against pressing interference from England, and afford him various grounds of resistance to improper applications. Secondly, all the means of defence against mal-administration, possessed by our West Indian colonies, in a free press, representative assemblies, and absentee proprietors, having seats in the House of Commons, may be enjoyed in India, the first immediately, the rest when the fruits of colonisation shall be sufficiently mature. The local press would be abundantly able to cope with such abuses as the multiplication of useless places, sinecures, and pensions; and, as to thrusting strangers over the heads of those who belonged to the service, against the plain provisions of an Act of Parliament, and against the obvious interest of the whole Service, though Sir John Malcolm has gone so far as to

insinuate that such unjust and illegal acts would be committed and tolerated, I am far from thinking so injuriously either of Ministers, or of those whose duty it would be to resist such proceedings. Thirdly, in every department of Government, civil, military, judicial, and ecclesiastical, the purity of administration has long been, and still is, progressively increasing. The candidates for office, high and low, possess superior qualifications; the claims of merit and approved service are more respected; the restraints on the abuse of patronage better defined and more effectual. These improvements may be traced to the working of our free institutions, and to that publicity which is the animating principle of all responsibility; and one immediate source of them has been the reports of commissioners, who have been from time to time appointed, at home and abroad, to inquire into the modes of transacting business, and to suggest remedies for whatever evils were found to exist. It is amidst accumulating evidence of the most earnest, active, and effectual exertions to promote virtue and discountenance vice, to abate monopolies, and facilitate competition, that Sir John Malcolm advocates the prolonged existence of an institution which is itself the most enormous abuse which has been suffered to remain. He has more faith in the wisdom, public spirit, and efficiency of an institution which he confesses it would be insanity to propose to establish, and which taxes the people of England at discretion, while it excludes them from the vast field of Indian agriculture, than in the majesty and vigilance of Parliament, the integrity of courts of justice, and the ceaseless energy of public opinion.

‘On the Permanence of our Dominion in India.

‘There is no material difference of opinion as to the nature and the magnitude of the dangers which threaten the subversion of our power in India. All agree that it has no root in the affection of the people, that it subsists by their distrust of each other, and dread of our superiority in the field, while the progress of our system, in producing universality of depression is continually supplying motives of union against the common enemy; but there is a wide difference between the modes of treatment recommended under these alarming and critical circumstances,—the advocates of colonisation contending that the observance of that policy would gradually afford all the elements of national greatness, industry, knowledge, assimilation, and a combination of efforts towards the promotion of the public welfare; the opponents of that policy avowing, more or less directly, that they consider it preferable to forego its benefits, and to incur the daily risk of rebellion, rather than to enter on a course of measures which might ultimately lead to a discontinuance of the political connexion between India and England.

‘A handful of foreigners sweep into the Exchequer, and divide among themselves, nearly the entire net produce of the land and

labour of a country containing six times the population of Great Britain. The Natives are considered incapable and unworthy to hold any but the lowest offices, civil and military, and by exclusion are rendered more incapable and untrustworthy; while every precaution is used to prevent a springing up of a community of interest and feeling between them and the foreigners, for which purpose the latter are prohibited from employing their skill, or investing their capital, as farmers or proprietors of land, and encouraged or constrained to transfer their accumulated savings to their own country. In this manner is India debarred from the acquisition of wealth, and subjected to a continual drain of its scanty store, in the payment of an annual public and private tribute of about three millions.

'The profits of the cultivator out of his half of the produce are barely sufficient for his subsistence, the other half of the produce being paid directly, or through the hands of a Zemindar, to Government. The share of Government, therefore, coincides with the landlord's rent, as was acknowledged by the Madras Board of Revenue, in their letter of the 28th of January, 1813.

'Such being the proportion in which the produce is divided between the cultivator and the Government, we may judge of the generosity which has assigned to the Natives the exclusive privilege of ploughing, irrigating, harrowing, sowing, and reaping; of being hewers of wood and drawers of water. But the intermediate profits incident to the realisation of the Government share have also been relinquished to them, because it was found that to permit Englishmen (servants of the Company) to be concerned, directly or indirectly, in the management of land, was to place their interest at variance with their duty, in exacting the uttermost farthing for the benefit of the state.

'The effect of colonisation in facilitating to the Natives access to the offices of honour and profit, results from its tendency to communicate to them the requisite moral and intellectual qualifications, and to impart to Government a consciousness of stability and power: for, until the Natives are duly qualified for high office, they ought not to be employed, and until Government feels confidence in its own strength, they will not be employed. The idea of compensation for such proscription, though often mentioned, cannot be entertained without involving a contradiction: in considerable offices power and wealth are indispensable, and Government will never give the latter to those whom they deem unworthy of the former.

'The only person who proposes the immediate advancement of the Natives to all but the very highest offices, is Colonel Walker. "The admission of the Natives to offices of honour and profit," he observes, "is the only mode by which they can be effectually conciliated. It is vain to expect that men will ever be satisfied with

merely having their property secured, while all the paths of honourable ambition are shut against them. This mortifying exclusion stifles talents, humbles family pride, and depresses all but the weak and worthless."—"The Romans, whose business was conquest, and who extended their yoke over the greatest part of the civilised world, may be safely taken as guides in the art of holding nations in subjection. That wise people always left a great share of the administration of the countries they subdued in the hands of the natives." But the questions obviously occur, did not that wise people invariably colonise? Did they think it wisdom to prevent the natives from benefiting by the example of Roman industry and intelligence, and to mock them with "the exclusive possession and enjoyment of the land," while they gathered its net produce into their own granaries? Did not one of their wisest men say, *Quid hodiè esset imperium nisi salubris providentia victos permiscuisset victoribus?* We may, indeed, not only follow them as guides, but cannot safely refuse to do so; but to abolish the restrictions on the employment of Natives, while they are continued on colonisation, would not be to follow the example of the Romans, nor of any other people, ancient or modern.

'Colonisation being the foundation of all improvement, its importance is greatly undervalued, if it be stated as an alternation of other expedients, as in the following passages from Sir Henry Strachey's Reply to Queries:—"Considering the (judicial) system prospectively, it does appear to me to have a tendency, though slowly, to enlighten the Natives, to introduce European science and literature among them. When these come to be diffused, which, unless we either colonise, or adopt some plan of national education in India, must take a long time, then I conceive that true English spirit, and the assertion of individual independence, will at the same time appear; and in such a state of things it cannot be supposed that the present form of government, or any other in which the people have no share, can be perfectly secure."—"It is a radical evil in the constitution of our Government that we are a distinct race from the people: so far removed from them in habits, in taste, in sentiment, that with difficulty we maintain any useful intercourse with them. For this evil palliatives only can be applied. I can suggest no means of curing it, except our colonising or employing the Natives in high offices." In all Sir Henry Strachey's writings, we find principles which harmonise with and conduct to the observance of colonial policy; but here, and here only, we find an express recommendation to it.

On the Landed Tenures and Land Tax of India.

'The superiority of Europe over Asia in wealth and knowledge, in arts and arms, has been justly attributed to the difference in their landed tenures, and in the sources of their public revenue. In

Europe, land is the property of individuals, cultivated by themselves, or by tenants, holding for a certain number of years, and paying a fixed annual rent; and all taxes, direct and indirect, are so well defined as to leave to every man, after such deductions, the clear fruits of his own labour. Individuality and security of property being the greatest spurs to industry, wealth accumulates, invention is excited, theoretical and practical knowledge widely diffused, and every effort of genius well appreciated and rewarded. The public revenue, being thus derived from the contributions of individuals, must, in some degree, be regulated in its amount, whatever be the form of government, by a regard to their interests and feelings. In influencing the financial proceedings of Government, the richest individuals, and especially those whose wealth is most visible and permanent, the proprietors of land, have the greatest weight, and, in protecting their own rents from encroachment, throw the taxes on articles of consumption and transfers of property, where moderation is soon taught by its palpable effect in augmenting the aggregate contribution. This influence of wealth re-acts as the greatest incitement to its acquisition; the largest fortunes are considered the standard by which the magnitude of all beneath them should be estimated,—the scale by which they should regulate their ambition,—the goal to which they should direct their efforts.

‘In Asia all these circumstances are reversed. The rent of all land being the property of the sovereign, his subjects have neither interest nor influence in fixing the amount or directing the appropriation of his revenue. It is always maintained at the highest possible amount, subject to no changes but what it may undergo from being more or less incumbered by anticipations. But, while his subjects see him, with indifference, do what he will with his own, while they pay, without murmuring, the accustomed assessments and transit duties, and look upon a certain degree of fraud and extortion in every such transaction as part of the immutable order of nature, they will sometimes resist an unusual direct tax, though light in its amount and applied to useful purposes on the spot, such as a house-tax, for the maintenance of a Chowkedaree, or police establishment, as they would an attack on their religion. The only road to eminence is through the favour of the Prince; and, wealth being without influence or security, there is neither inducement to exert skill and industry in acquiring it, nor to display judgment, taste, and liberality in its expenditure. If it is not hoarded, it is laid out in the maintenance of idle retainers, in bribes and superstitious oblations. In the cultivation of the soil no man can say, that, after satisfying certain demands, the rest of the produce shall be his own: for not only are the demands variable but the interests in the produce are so complicated, that each has but an ill-defined share in the general result. The redundancy of rural population is common to every country in which agricultural and manufacturing

skill are in their infancy, but in Asia obstacles of a peculiar nature are opposed to improvement by the inextricable confusion in the tenures.

“The first step to improvement is by a perpetual limitation of the Government demand to create a body of proprietors;—the next, to encourage those proprietors to purchase upwards from Government, and downwards from those holding under them their several interests, in the use and produce of the land, so as to give them an exclusive property in a smaller extent of surface, and to enable them to cultivate such estates by hired labour or by contract. Suppose the land-tax redeemed, and all beneath them in the condition of tenants at will (of whom there are multitudes in every part of India), the process which will ultimately be pursued in enlarging the size of farms, and substituting a skilful for a slovenly agriculture, will be that which has been exemplified in several districts in Ireland and Scotland, and especially in the magnificent operations on the vast estate of Sutherland. In Ireland these changes are proceeding with a rapidity which is attended with considerable inconvenience; but in India there would be less reason to apprehend such consequences; first,—because the number of European proprietors would be small compared with that of Native proprietors, on whose estates the changes would follow more tardily; secondly,—several years must elapse before the European proprietors could collect a sufficient number of practical data whereon to ground their calculations; thirdly,—there would be a concurrent demand for labourers in the establishment of manufactories, and in the cultivation of waste lands; fourthly,—gradual conformity to European habits will abate the practice of early marriages among the Natives, as well as that of squandering their fortunes on the pomp of nuptial ceremonies; finally,—as the European proprietors would have the best means of becoming acquainted with the condition and feelings of the Native population, so it would be their obvious interest to use every effort to improve their condition, conciliate their attachment, and preserve the peace of the country.

“In effectuating these improvements, the agency of British enterprise, skill, industry, and capital, is indispensable. In India, as in Siberia, “*the importation of industry*” is the only plan whereby an increased demand for the produce of the soil can be created and supplied, and whence motives and means can originate for reducing the present complexity of tenures to the simple relations of landlord and tenant.

“The effects hitherto produced by the permanent settlement in Bengal, though far short of what were predicted from it, have not been such as to detract, in the smallest degree, from the certainty of the proposition,—that a limitation in perpetuity of the Government demand, as being the *first* step toward the introduction of the most advantageous system of property, must and will, ultimately,

be established throughout all our possessions. The income of the Zemindars has, on an average, been tripled, by an addition of 20 per cent. to the rents collected by them from the Ryots; a secure investment for capital has been provided; the general wealth of the country, and the produce of the revenue from customs, excise, salt, and stamps, have been increased.

On this point, as on so many others, Sir John Malcolm has changed his opinions for the worse. In the first edition of his *Political History of India*, he "imagines there can be no doubt in the mind of any man who reflects seriously on the subject, but that the permanent settlement of the revenue, and the introduction of the judicial regulations, have already been attended with great benefit; that the character of this system is progressive improvement, and that its success has been sufficient to prevent disappointment to those who take a rational and comparative view of that good which can be produced by any human institution." In the second edition, he pronounces, as decidedly, that the objections of Colonel Wilks to a permanent settlement "have never been successfully controverted;" that it *has* occasioned disappointment, and that "it is now admitted, by its warmest advocates, to have been too much hurried, and to have been adopted with very incomplete information, both as to the extent and resources of the countries settled, and to the various claims, rights, and relations of its inhabitants." Now, with respect to the doctrines of Colonel Wilks, viz. that it "shuts out improvement," we have seen that, in Bengal, it has been followed by increased cultivation and productiveness of all other taxes: that "it is probable, nay, certain, the land tax will diminish;" that tax has been collected in Bengal with greater facility than ever, and with scarcely any defalcations: that being "an irrevocable law," it is "allowing a political nullity;" it is such a nullity as was allowed by the Act for the redemption of the land tax in 1798,—an Act which could not be infringed without violating the strongest sanctions which can make a law sacred. With respect to the "resources" of Bengal, the jumma fixed by the perpetual settlement was higher than the average sum collected during the whole anterior period; and, with respect to "the various claims, rights, and relations of its inhabitants," they were not determined nor affected by the mere renunciation by Government, in favour of the Zemindars, of all surplus collections which they might be entitled to make beyond a specified amount. Not content with retracting his former commendations of the Cornwallis institutions, Sir John Malcolm sets his face against all reformatory principles and arrangements, thinking that "the Natives may be as happy and as prosperous, under systems to which they are accustomed, as under those *we* would introduce to meet our own convenience, and *our* ideas of amelioration."

'The only laws which are irrevocable are the immutable princi-

ples of justice, which, being of divine appointment, constitute the foundation and authority of all human institutions. Where these are not involved, one generation cannot preclude the exercise of the discretion of a succeeding generation in framing arrangements of public utility, whether respecting the form of government, or the extent and remuneration of public establishments. But, if a former generation had made a distribution of the public lands, under a conviction that the direct and indirect contributions of such proprietors would vastly exceed all that could be derived from their cultivation by any system of agency or contract: or to come nearer to the actual circumstances, if a former generation, finding the public lands in the hands of a set of hereditary contractors, without skill, industry, or integrity, had determined to convert them into proprietors, by fixing, for ever, the rents payable by them, at an amount exceeding the average of their payments during the last thirty years, subject to the condition that their lands should be sold to the highest bidder, if they failed to discharge their annual rent, the infringement of such compact by a succeeding generation would be an act of equal folly and injustice. These considerations did not occur to Colonel Wilks, when he declared the perpetual settlement to be "a political nullity;" nor to the author of the following passage, in a despatch from the Court of Directors:—"When institutions contain within themselves a corrective principle, the imperfections which may adhere to their original formation are of comparatively little importance, because they are susceptible of gradual improvement; but when, as in the case of the proposed permanent settlement, institutions are irrevocable and unalterable, prudence, circumspection, and the most mature deliberation, cannot be too often or too generally inculcated upon those whose province it is to direct and superintend their establishment." By the perpetual settlement nothing was made "irrevocable and unalterable," but the rights of individuals to their estates, those individuals continuing liable to every future tax which should not fall exclusively on the rent of landlords, but equally affect every description of property. To engage to respect such rights seems rather to require an instinctive impulse of common sense than an extraordinary exercise of circumspection and deliberation: to such an institution no "corrective principle" can be imagined, for the rights cannot be held too sacred, and no legislative power is excluded, except that of decreeing a wanton confiscation.

'By Reg. XLVIII. of 1793, the collectors were required to prepare and transmit to the Board of Revenue quinquennial registers of estates paying revenue to Government, and (annual) registers of intermediate mutations in landed property. By subsequent Regulations, other Registers relating to, and exempt from, the payment of revenue, were required; but they all remained nearly

inoperative. Very few such registers were ever prepared; and, as the failure was ascribed to the want of sufficient office establishments, the judge and collector of each Zillah were, in 1817, appointed a committee, with the Register for their secretary, and adequate establishments, for the purpose of executing similar duties in a more accurate and comprehensive manner. These *Record Committees* record, compile, and transmit to the Presidency Record Committee, statements and reports respecting revenue settlements, individual or conjunct tenures, and all manner of statistical information. But the question is, what has been the value of their labours compared with the cost? What has been their influence on the statistical condition of the country, and on the territorial revenue? How much nearer have they brought us to the desiderated relations of landlord and tenant? In what degree have they tended to give simplification and validity to tenures? To these objects, the avowed ends of their institution, they have contributed nothing. If the inefficient quinquennial, and other register regulations, had not been disturbed from their slumber, some lacs of rupees might have been saved which have been spent on these Record Committees without the return of any advantage whatever. Taking the expense of each Committee at only 250 rupees per month, the expense of fifty-four Committees for ten years will amount to upwards of 17 lacs of rupees. Yet the absolute waste of a much greater sum would be nothing compared to the loss of time during which a better system might have been in operation—one which facilitated the acquisition of individual property in land, and the application of British skill to its cultivation.

‘I know not what evidence there is of a desire, on the part of public officers, to render rents uniform; but there is good ground for their impatience of interminable investigations and unprofitable accuracy. It is Government which desires to render that *fixed* which is in its nature *variable*, and to disturb the natural level of private contracts by the interposition of public authority. While Government persevere in this course of minute inspection of, and continual tampering with, landed property, (if such a thing can be said to exist in the non-permanently settled provinces, where it is so confusedly divided between the cultivators of various ranks and Government,) and prevent the enterprise and skill of unlicensed British subjects from being applied to the cultivation of the soil and the manufacture of its rude produce, no lapse of time nor any elaboration of detailed enactments will ever conduce to the improvement of the public revenue, or of the condition and character of the Native inhabitants.

On the Judicial System.

‘The same change in the landed tenures, which is indispensable to the promotion of agricultural improvement, is no less indispensable

to the production of that amelioration in the judicial system which is implied in diminished litigation, greater precision in the laws, and a more able administration of them. At present a greater proportion of the public revenue is appropriated to the maintenance of judicial establishments than can be paralleled in any other country; but, if, by trenching still further on the funds for the support of other departments, the number of tribunals were doubled, and every Judge a Mansfield, the effect on the happiness of the people would be inconsiderable. The sum of ignorance, poverty, and vice, would not be sensibly diminished; the rights of the Ryots, who constitute the great mass of the population, would remain equally inscrutable; the disputes between borrowers and lenders equally numerous and perplexed. When the Zillah Courts were established, in 1793, Sir Henry Strachey observes that "the Judges and Registers were soon overloaded with suits. I will not here dwell upon the claims without end to land of every description. I say nothing of the suits concerning rent-free land, and the boundary disputes which no labour can unravel. I proceed to mention that the nature of the land tenures in Bengal gives rise to innumerable suits among the cultivators."

‘Sir Henry Strachey observes:—"The remedy I propose for the defects I have stated is the establishment of more Courts, composed of Natives, both Mohammedans and Hindoos, to be guided entirely by our regulations. Let the Native Judges be well paid, and they will do the duty well: of this I feel the strongest conviction. The expense would be little or nothing, as the fees might defray the whole, though it would be better to give the Native Judges liberal salaries."—"If the powers of the Moonsifs were only extended to the decision of suits to the amount of two hundred rupees, (the limit of the Register's authority at present,) the institution fee alone would, I conceive, form an ample fund for the payment of the Native Judges and their omrah. When I speak of a liberal salary for a Native Judge, I would be understood to mean somewhat less than one-tenth of the salary of the European Judge. It is my opinion that *all* the judicial functions of Bengal might gradually be thrown into the hands of the Natives, if such were the pleasure of the Company; and that the business would be as well conducted, under the Regulations, by the Natives as by the Europeans,—in some respects better,—and at one-tenth of the expense."—"To transact one quarter of the judicial business by European agency is impossible. If all the Company's servants were employed in judicial offices, still the drudgery would fall upon the Natives. The advantage, in point of economy, of employing the Natives is self-evident. The plan might be contracted or adopted to any extent. Suppose a portion, for instance half, of the subordinate offices in the judicial departments, (I mean those of Register and assistant,) as they fall vacant, were to be filled with Natives, with

allowances of two or three hundred rupees to each, that is to say, less than half the present salaries and emoluments, it would soon be found that the Natives are fit for the office of Judge. We should have a respectable class of Natives, who would, in some degree, assimilate with us, and would form a link of connexion between us and the body of the people."

' The repugnance universally entertained by the Natives of India, both Mohammedan and Hindoo, to the taking of a judicial oath, is well known, though the grounds of their objection have never been clearly stated. Their total want of power to bind the conscience and extract true evidence is as generally acknowledged; and ineffectual attempts have been made to correct the evil by enacting severer punishments for perjury, and by seeking for more impressive forms of administering them. The true remedy, in conjunction with, and in subordination to, the slow effects of religious instruction, seems to be by permitting all classes to give evidence unsworn, to remove, or at least greatly diminish, the objection which respectable persons now have to appearing as witnesses in a court of justice. Mr. Edward Strachey has supported the proposition with irresistible arguments. "Such is the terror of the oath," he observes, "that no respectable person will appear in our courts as a witness, if he can help it. My own little experience enables me to say that it is common for families, sometimes even whole villages, to fly at the apprehension of being named as witnesses. I have often known men cry and protest against the injustice of others who have accused them of being witnesses to a fact; and they declare that they are innocent of the charge with as much anxiety as if they were accused of felony. Some men refuse to swear from conscience and others from pride. Whatever may be the orthodox opinion of the Hindoo theologians, the people at large do certainly consider that the taking of an oath on the Ganges water, is a spiritual offence of the most horrid nature, which consigns them and their families, for many generations, to damnation. With respect to those persons who do not make it a point of conscience, it must be admitted that to appear in one of our courts as a witness, is, in the highest degree, disgraceful. In short, the very fact of a Native having taken an oath in one of our courts, is a presumption against the respectability of his character, or the purity of his conscience. If any doubt is entertained of the truth of these facts, I can only say that I assert them on the grounds of my own experience, and of the best information which I have been able to collect from Natives as well as Europeans. I suppose that the evils are acknowledged to exist to their fullest extent, but that they are considered to be necessary evils. The courts have now authority, in certain cases, to exempt persons from swearing. This is something, but it does not appear to be sufficient. If the corporal oath, in the form now used, does tend to banish truth from our courts,

and if it is liable to the objections I have stated, I know no reason why it should not be banished altogether.—The imposition of an oath on a man, who believes that by taking it he brings damnation on himself and his family for many generations, appears to me to be a mode of finding out truth not very different from torture."

'Improvements in the text of the law, and in the training of the Judges, cannot well precede, but will certainly follow, the general progress in wealth and intelligence.

On the Exclusion of British Subjects from the Right of holding Land in India.

'That English settlers in India would be found altogether unmanageable was maintained by all the Company's witnesses examined by Parliament in 1813. Warren Hastings apprehended the greatest possible evils, "plunder," and "ruin to the peace of the country, and to the interest of the Company," from "letting loose hordes" of Englishmen, and from "an irruption of British adventurers into India;" yet, if a few favoured individuals were permitted, by special license, to reside in the interior, he predicted still greater mischiefs than if all men indiscriminately were allowed to possess the same privilege. "They would go armed with power and an influence which no man would dare to resist; and those are the men that I should apprehend more danger from than an indiscriminate rabble let loose upon the country. In opposing the attempts of such men, every man would think that he was acting in opposition to their patron."

'The following answer, by Lord Teignmouth, is incontrovertible: "If there were an unrestrained intercourse between such persons and the Natives, that is, an intercourse which could not be restrained, it would imply a defect in the superintending powers of the Government, that would, in fact, amount to a suspension of its functions; and, in that case, an unrestrained multitude would certainly be dangerous in many points of view."

'Nothing more exquisite can be imagined than the following passage from the evidence of Mr. Cowper, which reminds one of the debates in the cabinet of Lilliput, respecting the restraints to which Gulliver should be subjected:—"The question supposes the British merchant sends his agent there, and forms an establishment to carry on business there: supposing he should have a misunderstanding with the Natives, how far with the enactment in his hands, allowing him to have free scope for his enterprise and commerce, would the magistrate have the means of settling that dispute? It might so happen, supposing the plan now in agitation to have full effect, and to answer expectation, a THOUSAND EUROPEANS might be found, within a small extent of country, which might outnumber, tenfold, all the force the Company could bring against them in the form of police, unless their police were so large as

would consume their whole revenue; but I cannot possibly suppose such an occurrence would happen: I do not suppose such an enormous influx of adventurers is likely to take place; the inconvenience of restraining them would always be in proportion to the numbers!"

Sir John Malcolm said, "I am of opinion, from what I have observed, that the power vested in the local Governments of India, of sending a British subject to Europe, and that given to a magistrate, of sending him away from a district, is much seldomer exercised than it should be. It is quite impossible that any person educated in England, and whose breast is filled with the principles of British freedom, can dismiss those from his mind so far as to exercise, without feelings of great compunction, very absolute power, however necessary such may be on the grounds of general policy."

The following passage is from the evidence of Mr. Charles Buller:—"It has occurred to me, in two instances, in the course of two months, to recommend to Government that two gentlemen might be sent out of the district where they resided. Now these came accidentally [and *ex parte* ?] before me in my official capacity, as I had nothing to do with the superintendence of those gentlemen, or with the general police of the country; but, when any question arose whether they held lands directly or indirectly, such questions were always sent to the Board of Revenue to report upon, and, in these two instances, the acts of oppression committed against the Ryots were so great, that I believe we suggested to Government whether it was proper that people of that kind should be allowed to remain in that country; and I believe they were removed in consequence; I know they were ordered." Of the oppression of Ryots by Zemindars, the public records are full. Of the cases of Mr. Buller's two gentlemen, we know nothing; but his cursory notice of them affords one instance of the facility and indifference with which the blind and often cruel remedy of removal from the interior, or from India, is applied. Doubtless, the benefits derivable from the operations of European agriculturists cannot be expected from those who engage in them clandestinely and are treated like poachers.

As Mr. Hastings and other witnesses predicted that the Englishmen, not in the service of the Company, who proceeded to India, would immediately turn robbers; so Mr. S. R. Lushington apprehended that many of the crews of private ships would turn pirates, and that "the number of ships of war necessary to repress their depredations would be so expensive as not to make the country worth possessing!" Both predictions are of equal value, and rest on equally solid grounds; but the circumstances in which the former would be put to the test have not yet occurred. With respect to the latter, there has not been one instance of piracy committed by a European, but, on the contrary, the resources of Native pirates

have been curtailed, and the extension of commerce consequent on colonisation will abate the nuisance altogether.

¶ The substance of Sir John Malcolm's objections to colonisation, seems comprised in the following passages of his 'Political History':—"We may and ought to impart such improvement as will promote their happiness and the general prosperity of the country; but we are bound by every obligation of faith, (and it would be a principle of imperative policy, even if we had given no pledge,) not to associate with our improvement any measures of which the operation is likely to interfere with their interests, to offend their prejudices, or to outrage their cherished habits and sentiments. That colonisation, on any extended scale, would have this effect, *no man can doubt, who is acquainted with the nature of the property in the soil, and the character of the population.*"* The different rights which are involved in every field of cultivated land in India, have been particularly noticed; and those who have studied that subject will be satisfied that, in many of our provinces, there is no room for the English proprietor."—"The danger of offence to the prejudices, usages, or religion of the Native, from the settlement of British agricultural Colonists, would be great, and this danger, it is to be remarked, would not spring so much from the acts of the latter as from the apprehensions and impressions of the former, who would believe any such settlement to be the commencement of a system for the subversion of the existing order of society. They would view the settlers as invaders of their right, and no benefit they could derive from the introduction of capital, or the example of industry and enterprise, would reconcile any to such a change, except the very lowest of the labouring classes: all others would either shrink from a competition with what they would deem a higher and more favoured class, or be irritated to a spirit of personal hostility, which, in whatever way it might show itself, would be most injurious to the public interests."

¶ Upon this I observe, first,—the above statement does not relate to mere facts respecting which Sir John Malcolm's experience may entitle his testimony to attention; it does not relate to political arrangements with which his whole life has been conversant; nor even to questions of detail respecting the military, fiscal, or judicial systems of India; but it relates to the application of the principles of politico-economical science, with which neither his duties nor his studies have made him familiar. We have seen how much witnesses of the highest rank and reputation were deceived

* Three pages further on, this form of begging the question is repeated: "That the colonisation of some scattered English families would have this effect, [*i. e.* that they would degenerate and bring the English character into disrepute,] *no one can doubt who knows the country and its inhabitants.*"

respecting the effect of throwing open the trade to India. They are the same witnesses who say that the introduction of European capital and skill into the agriculture of India, and a more intimate association of the Natives of both countries, will not reduce but *widen* the distance which now separates the two classes of inhabitants in respect to knowledge, habits, and affections. It is further to be considered that the proposed measures, against which these witnesses testify, are restrictive of powers which they had exercised, or in the exercise of which they had participated, or expected to participate; and there are few instances of limitations of power, of whatever description, originating with its possessor, few in which they have not been extorted, as from a reluctant and struggling adversary.

‘Secondly, with respect to the want of *room* in “the cultivated lands, because they are occupied, and in the waste lands, because they have claimants who can produce strong title to the eventual occupation of them,” it is not required that any Native should be compelled to cede his land, his rights, or his claims; but that, since letting and sale of land are transactions of daily occurrence, Natives should not be prevented from letting and selling to Europeans and their descendants. Paris is a crowded city, yet room can be found in it at any time for 30,000 English travellers. So, in London, myriads of strangers from all points of the compass contrive to live without invasion of the rights, or disturbance of the convenience, of the original inhabitants. The redundant population of Ireland has never suggested the idea of a law to prevent the transference thither of English capital, or the settlement in that country of English agriculturists and manufacturers.

‘Thirdly, that foreigners should appropriate to their own use nine-tenths of the net produce of the land and labour of their country, and exclude the Natives from all share in the Government, and from all respectable ministerial offices, is a condition of things well calculated to make them look with aversion on what they must “deem a higher and more favoured class, and be irritated to a spirit of personal hostility, which, in whatever it might show itself, must be most injurious to the public interests.” But English agriculturists and manufacturers not “favoured” by the possession of any peculiar privileges, amenable to the same courts of justice, living on the fruits of their industry, under the protection of the same laws, and subject to the payment of the same taxes as their Native brethren, would diffuse a spirit of industry, improvement, and emulation, which could not but make the sources from which it flowed, objects of esteem, gratitude, and attachment. This consequence is admitted by some of the opponents of colonisation, who found on it a most unreasonable objection, that the Natives, coalescing with the Colonists, would aspire to be put on a footing with them in respect to civil and criminal judicatures: as if it were not

desirable that the Natives, like the old Irish, should eventually *pay* to be received within the pale of English law, and be in all things more and more assimilated to the Colonists. Such assimilation implies not merely a parity of knowledge and skill, but a community of feelings, habits, prejudices, and attachments, and would, therefore, be the firmest bond of union, not a cause of dissension and contest. Government complains of its weakness; of the want of sympathy between it and the people; of their ignorance, vice, and poverty; of its inability to repress crime, or excite the slightest movement of public spirit in support of internal peace or external security. Here you have a remedy for these otherwise irremediable evils.—Here you have an inexhaustible well of moral health and national strength. **B 399.**

‘That conciliation, and a tendency to assimilation, have resulted from competition between English and Native merchants, shopkeepers, and artisans, living within the jurisdiction of the three Supreme Courts, Sir John Malcolm himself admits. “The mixed population,” says he, “of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, made up of Europeans, Half-castes, or Anglo-Indians, and *that part of the Natives who are associated by their ties, their interests, and their occupations, with English laws and usages, and a great proportion of whom have been born and educated under the influence and operation of these laws,* form a community as separate in habits and sentiments from that which exists in a town or village, as if they belonged to different nations. There are no people so abhorrent of change as the inhabitants of India; and, if its progress has been so slow, that it has not as yet travelled beyond the walls of our chief settlement, we may judge of the period which must elapse before we can expect to see complete success crown our efforts for the improvement of our subjects, in what we deem the blessings of civilisation, but which are viewed by those whom we desire to adopt them as innovations on their cherished habits, and the religion of their forefathers. The difference between our capitals and their surrounding districts, is not greater than that which exists between the countries that have been long in our possession and those we have recently acquired. The various provinces which form our wide empire may not unaptly be compared, as far as relates to their knowledge of the principles of our rule, our character, and our institutions, to a family of children from the mature man to the infant.”

‘Now, if the degree of assimilation which prevails at the capitals does not obtain elsewhere, it is plainly because the causes which have produced it do not exist in the same abundance and strength beyond those limits. It is absurd to suppose that the degree of change here spoken of has travelled so slowly that it has taken a hundred years to advance from the centre to the circumference of each of our three principal settlements, and would proceed at the same pace to the extremities of our empire. On the contrary, it

has been generated by peculiar circumstances, in a moderate space of time, within certain limits; and its extension has been arrested by coming in contact with different circumstances. Its expansion has been prevented by the interposition of non-conducting substances. Beyond the jurisdiction of the Supreme Courts, the Natives are not "associated by their ties, their interests, and their occupations, with English laws and usages, nor born and educated under the influence of those laws." But let the obstacles to colonisation be removed, and that association will not only take place throughout the provinces, but become much more intimate and cordial. Connexions would subsist not merely during the best years of the lives of individuals of the two races, but be transmitted from fathers to sons. The Natives would then "see the grey hairs of Englishmen," whose sons would inherit their fathers' zeal for the welfare of their common country, and who, as agricultural colonists, would have the means of rendering it much more valuable services than can be derived from the operations of merchants temporarily resident under licenses. "The civil and military officers," Sir John Malcolm further observes, "are, from their stations and duties, too distant from the population to be copied; but in the merchant with whom he deals or competes, and the mechanic for whom he labours, or whom he tries to rival, our Indian subjects view classes to which they are near; and, notwithstanding the inveteracy of habits, many may unconsciously become imitators of customs which time may satisfy them are preferable to their own." Yet he contends, that, if the sphere of this intercourse were to be extended, if the inhabitants of the interior were to be permitted to benefit by similar models, if objects of rivalry in other departments of industry were to be presented to their notice, they would cease to admire and copy, but stand aloof in sullen malignity. As far as the experiment has been tried, we have found thankfulness, docility, and a tendency to assimilation: if you urge it farther, he says you will find repugnance, ingratitude, and hostility.

Fourthly, if we would relieve Sir John Malcolm from the imputation of this inconsistency, we are driven to question the sincerity of his belief, that unlimited intercourse with Europeans would really be injurious to the interests and happiness of the Natives. In saying that "we ought to impart such improvement as will promote their happiness, and the general prosperity of the country," was he influenced by no other consideration than a regard to their welfare? Or was he biassed by an apprehension that colonisation might lead to an advancement in knowledge which might be eventually incompatible with British supremacy? The following passages from his evidence, in 1813, will throw light upon the subject, and assist the reader in drawing his own conclusions.

"Do you think that the advance of the Natives of India in every branch of useful knowledge will be in proportion to the means

and examples which we may afford them, by the residence of such persons as have been described in India? I certainly do conceive that their advance in every branch of useful knowledge will be in proportion to the examples and instruction they receive: I mean, by useful knowledge, an improvement in mechanical arts, and every thing that tends to render them more happy and comfortable.

“ Might not an increase in the knowledge of useful arts in the Natives, conveyed by British subjects resident in India, tend to strengthen the British Government in India? I conceive that such knowledge might tend, in a considerable degree, to increase their own comforts and their enjoyments of life; but I cannot see how it would tend, in any shape, to strengthen the political security of the British Government in India, which appears to me to rest peculiarly on their PRESENT condition.”

‘ There was a time when Sir John Malcolm thought more favourably of the policy (he has never denied the practicability) of colonising India. In the first edition of his ‘ Political History,’ he wrote as follows :—“ Colonisation seems one of the most likely means by which knowledge of the Christian religion and civilisation may be hereafter disseminated throughout India; but that appears to be so much dreaded from the political consequences with which it is thought likely to be attended, that a long period must elapse before its operation can be seen.”

‘ Two years later, at the bar of the House of Commons, he avowed that, though the improvement of the Natives would certainly be in proportion to the examples and instruction set before them, yet the safety of our Government depended on retaining them in their *present* condition, and every other consideration was subordinate to the obligation of providing for our own political security. And, at last, when he had ascended still higher in the scale of rank, and had a prospect of being more than ever identified with the Government of India, he justifies withholding the means of information by a solicitude for the welfare of the Natives themselves !

On the Freedom of the Press in India.

‘ As the exclusion of British subjects from the right of holding land in India, is maintained on different grounds from those on which it was originally decreed, so the arbitrary control exercised over the Indian press results from the application of a prerogative granted for a different purpose. In both cases Government has been silently and accidentally put in possession of powers of which it cannot be divested without a protracted struggle and reiterated appeals to public opinion: and there is so intimate a connexion between the rights claimed in each case that they will probably both be conceded at the same moment.

‘ It is usual with the Attorney-General and with Judges to introduce their censure of the particular libel by expatiating on the ad-

vantages of the liberty of the press in general. In like manner, Sir John Malcolm, the most strenuous opponent of a free press in India, affects great zeal for giving publicity in England to papers regarding the administration of the Indian Government. "No good Government," he says, "can wish for mystery or concealment; such can be desirable only as veils to weakness and mismanagement. *There never was a state to which publicity is calculated to be of more benefit, both as a check and as an encouragement to those by whom it is administered, than that we have established for India.*" There is nothing in these unqualified propositions, nor in the immediate context, to limit their application to publications in England, so that they stand in manifest contradiction to his endeavours to prove that, in India, mystery and concealment may be subservient to good government, and are even indispensable to its safety. The most despotic Governments of Europe never could prevent animadversions on their proceedings from being published in foreign countries, and are satisfied if they prevent such things from being printed and published within their territories. Before exposure and comment can come from a distance, the position of individuals may be materially changed, and the public attention is occupied with the occurrences of the day. So it is with respect to the publicity which Sir John Malcolm would allow for India. As a check, it would be utterly inefficient; for the measures animadverted upon would long ago have been executed, and the functionaries concerned would feel that they were subject to no check but that of official responsibility, however desirous they might be of receiving light from other quarters. Even as an encouragement, the effect of remote, tardy, and partial publicity, which may come when a man is "old, and cannot enjoy it,—solitary, and cannot impart it," must be feeble compared with the animation of contemporaneous applause.

'In 1818, the nascent efforts at the use of the press, by persons who, not being British-born, were not liable to be transported at the will of the Governor-General, nor under any obligation to pay obedience to the orders of the censor, compelled Lord Hastings to discontinue the censorship. A mode of coercion applicable to both half-caste and British editors had not then been devised, the pretensions of the former were not yet sufficiently formidable to suggest the enactment of a licensing regulation, while the terrors of transmission, which there was no disposition to relinquish, afforded abundant means of restraining the latter. The condition of editors was now changed from one of perfect security to one of hazard and peril, in proportion to the credit which each might be disposed to give the Governor-General for sentiments of toleration and magnanimity. But little misapprehension could have occurred on this subject, if Lord Hastings himself had not delivered a reply to an address from the inhabitants of Madras, complimenting him on his abolition of all restrictions on the press, which it is impossi-

ble to construe otherwise than as accepting the "laudatory language" in the sense in which it was given, and referring to the possession, by the inhabitants of Calcutta, of the same freedom of discussion which had enabled our beloved country to triumph in its awful contest with tyrant-ridden France. It is impossible to give to that speech any other construction than that of a virtual repeal of, and solemn pledge never to enforce, extra-judicial restrictions.

'Nevertheless, Sir John Malcolm is pleased to say that those who understood the speech, in the sense which I have ascribed to it, "*altogether misrepresented*" it! He contents himself with that flat assertion, making no attempt to show wherein the imputed misinterpretation consists; and it is for the world to judge whether they will adopt *his* interpretation, or consider it as one of the most extraordinary instances on record of the degree in which the judgment may be eclipsed by extrinsic considerations.

'We have an equally striking example of the perverting force of this influence, in his account of the transmission of Mr. Fair for an alleged inaccuracy in reporting a speech of Sir Charles Chambers. It is as follows:—"The quarter from which this appeal was made to the Civil Government, unless we impugn the conduct of the Judge who made it, must carry with it irresistible evidence of the necessity of that authority whose aid was solicited; and, with respect to the extreme resorted to, in affording this aid, there is one unanswerable plea to be preferred, which is, that a Government, so situated, cannot suffer the commands it has issued to be successfully opposed by an individual, without a loss of that impression of its power which is quite essential to the fulfilment of its various and important duties." He takes it for granted that the conduct of Sir Charles Chambers, in requiring an editor to be transported from Bombay to England, (*by way of China!*)* and ruined for an alleged inaccuracy in reporting his speech, cannot or ought not to be impugned; and thus we have "irresistible" evidence that the speech was incorrectly reported, and that there was a "necessity" for Mr. Elphinstone's complying with his desire that the mistake should be visited with so disproportionate a punishment. Among the most memorable cases of arbitrary inflictions for constructive contempts of courts of justice, or of the Houses of Parliament, there is nothing which equals the atrocity of this; yet, according to Sir John Malcolm, the mere "quarter" from which it proceeded, while he suppresses the name of the Judge, carries with it irresistible evidence of its justice and necessity! It is enough that the complainant was "one of his Majesty's Judges," and the transmitter, "the Governor in Council."—"Robes and furred gowns hide all." The slightest punishment by fine

* 'There being no *Company's* ship bound direct to England, it was not lawful to shorten his voyage!'

of imprisonment would have far exceeded the supposed fault of Mr. Parg. If it could have been substantiated; but the heaviest punishment in those forms, which he had himself the power of awarding, and not satisfy Sir Charles Chambers; he required that his victim should be banished ten thousand miles from the scene of his occupation. And then a British Governor cannot suffer the commands he has issued to be successfully opposed by an individual, however violent and unjust those commands may be, without weakening a salutary impression of his power. This is "an unanswerable plea," and so it might be thought at Constantinople for the extremes there resorted to in affording aid to authority. This reasoning is in the highest strain of that "Oriental tyranny which it is, or ought to be, our highest boast to have destroyed." It confounds political power, as it is displayed in war and negotiation, which is possessed in the highest degree by the most civilised nations, with that disregard of life and property which is peculiar to barbarous Governments. It expresses sentiments which no English writer would venture to avow, and involves an aberration from the plainest principles of natural justice and sound policy, into which he could not be betrayed, were not the statute-book stained with the enactment which gives to Governors in India the arbitrary power of deporting their countrymen from India to England.

'In a similar strain is the following passage from his speech in the Court of Proprietors:—"It has been said, and it has been repeated to-day, that your empire in India is one of opinion. It is so: but it is not an opinion of your right, but of your power. The inhabitants of India see that limited by laws and regulations, and the spectacle increases their confidence; but show them the person who exercises an authority they deem supreme, braved and defeated by those under him, and the impression which creates the charm will be broken." If the charm were of so frail a nature it must have been broken long ago, or rather must have been broken and renewed a thousand times; for the inhabitants of India have often seen the local Governments distracted by faction, braved by civil and military insubordination, and overruled by a distant and unknown power. They have seen double negotiations conducted, and contradictory treaties concluded, by King's Commissioners, and by the different Presidencies. They have seen authority so divided between the British and Native Government, that "the Native grew uncertain where his obedience was due." They saw Lord Pigot deposed, imprisoned, and die in confinement; the defeats and victories of Warren Hastings, in his contests with the members of his Council, and with the Judges of the Supreme Court; and various mutinies, both among the European officers and sepoys of the Bengal and Madras armies. The charm to which the British owe the origin, advancement, and duration of their power, and the awe which it inspires, is manifestly the superiority of disciplined

well-armed, and well-paid troops, over an undisciplined, ill-armed, and ill-paid rabble. Other causes, resulting from superior knowledge and art, have, doubtless, contributed to their influence.

The argument derived from the supposed fragility of the constitution, and from the ambiguity in the word "power," is not only unfounded in fact, but inapplicable to the question, inasmuch as editors of newspapers, and other publishers, are not persons "*under a governor*." They are not in the exercise of official duties, nor capable of giving offence by erroneous, negligent, corrupt, or contumacious conduct. If subordinate functionaries obstruct public business by such misconduct, the consequences, wherever the fault lies, may be highly inconvenient; but, if a Governor goes out of his way to attack a private individual, if all his grandeur availeth him nothing, so long as he sees Mordecai the Jew sitting at the King's gate, if he would employ force to destroy the fortune and banish the person of an innocent man, it is fit that he should be defeated. But, if there were not a fatal snare in the law, no Governor would commit himself in so odious a conflict; and then the inhabitants of India would be spared the sight of his unseemly defeat, or the still more shameful spectacle of his success.

Except in India, the press is free wherever a British Government exists:—in Ireland, while every other restriction was heaped on that oppressed country;—in Canada, where the mass of the inhabitants inherited the religion and laws of France;—in the West Indies, where nine-tenths of the population are slaves;—in New South Wales, where a great portion of it consists of convicts; or of those who by time or pardon have become emancipated. More plausible objections might have been raised against its introduction into all those countries than into India. With respect to the two extremes, Ireland and the West Indies, it might have been said that, in the former, the inhabitants were too intelligent, and too nearly on an equality with other British subjects, to be trusted with the use of such powerful means, as a free press would be in their hands, of reclaiming the few privileges from which they were excluded; and that, in the latter, the vast majority of the inhabitants were depressed and degraded by so many and so severe disabilities, that no discussion of them could be permitted, with safety, to the ruling minority. In India the Natives occupy a middle position, equally removed from the intelligence and immunities of the Irish, and from the ignorance and servitude of the Negroes. But, because the English residents in India are not strong enough to extort the repeal of an arbitrary prerogative, it is pretended that the good of India "needs a mixture of some principles happily uncongenial to England," though such mixtures may have been found too congenial to the ideas and tempers of English magistrates and statesmen until controlled by law.

The tendency of unrestrained discussion is to attach the people

to a system of government under which they enjoy so reasonable and perceivable a mode of making known their grievances, of exhaling their discontent, of appealing to the sympathies of their fellow subjects, and to the wisdom and generosity of their rulers. It also affords to Government the advantage, which by no other means can be obtained, of ascertaining the opinions and feelings which are from time to time prevalent in the country, without which knowledge the grounds of its proceedings must always be defective, and may sometimes be irretrievably erroneous. Compared with the clear and comprehensive view which is thus obtained of the state of popular feeling, the information which can be drawn from spies is worse than useless: they misrepresent and exaggerate the little that they discover, and afford delusive hopes of the general predominance of tranquillity, satisfaction, and allegiance. It appears, however, to Sir John Malcolm, that "we could give the Brahmins, and others of the instructed classes of India, no weapon which they would know better how to use against us than a free press. Their efforts would be chiefly directed to corrupt our Native soldiery, who are neither insensible to their own consequence, nor inobservant of the depressed scale on which they serve:" and he mentions "inflammatory papers in the form of proclamations, letters, and prophecies, directed to the subversion of the British power," of which "there has been, for the last thirty-five years, a most active circulation:" but, from the difficulty of multiplying copies, and the fear of detection, confined to particular parts of the country, as "an earnest of the dangers to be apprehended from the printed tracts and papers which might be expected from a free press."

If such papers are circulated, they are unaccompanied by any calculated to counteract their evil qualities; but they could not be printed, under the freedom that is contended for, without greater liability to detection and punishment; and without being infinitely outnumbered by publications of an opposite tendency. It is without example in any age or country that plans to subvert a Government should be carried on through the medium of the press. The productions of the press are invariably directed against specific abuses in the Administration, or in the frame of the Government; they address themselves openly to the understanding, interests, and passions of the whole nation, and succeed or fail in proportion to the number and weight of the persons whose minds they influence. But conspiracies are begotten and nourished in secrecy, and managed by instruments and methods altogether different. Conspirators communicate by means of messengers and cyphers, and use the utmost circumspection in selecting those to whom they may think it prudent to disclose their purposes. But, according to Sir John Malcolm, a free Native press "could only be used towards one object—that of our destruction." The papers now secretly circulated "depict the English as usurpers of low caste, and tyrants

who have sought India with no view but that of degrading the inhabitants, and of robbing them of their wealth, while they seek to subvert their usages and their religion." The Native soldiery are always appealed to, and the advice to them is, in all instances he has met with, the same—"Your European tyrants are few in number, murder them!" A free press, he insists, would afford greater, nay unbounded, facilities for the dissemination of such sentiments and the furtherance of such projects; as if imprisonment for libel, and even transportation, were things unheard of and unknown to the law of England. And all the circumstances which generate the matter of sedition, which occasion the active circulation and greedy reception of these libels, and enable them to "keep up a spirit which places us always in danger,"—all these perilous circumstances he would carefully preserve in their present condition. That the English should continue to stand in those relations towards the Natives which give colour and verisimilitude to their being represented as "low-caste usurpers, and as tyrants who seek India with no view but that of degrading the inhabitants, and of robbing them of their wealth," is a policy which, however contrary to reason and experience, he justifies by reference to the indescribable and inconceivable peculiarity of those ties by which we hold India, the true character of which it is given only to a few chosen vessels to understand: and that the Native soldiery should never cease to be accessible to such seditious incitements, but be retained for ever in their present state of depression, is also a doctrine which he maintains by the same compendious argument. All his care is to feed the disease and to exclude the antidote.

'If papers of the tenour described abound, they will, no doubt, be dispersed most profusely when disaster has befallen, or seems impending, "from the occurrence of misfortune to our arms, from rebellion in our provinces, or from mutiny in our troops." It has been well observed, that, in arbitrary Governments, where no intercourse subsists between the executive power and the people, where the latter have no insight into the proceedings of the state, but are left to judge, merely from the event, how far they might have been wisely designed or honestly conducted, it is not surprising that they should consider every failure as a crime, and demand a victim for every disaster. But in free and enlightened states, where the people go, as it were, hand in hand with their representatives, and their representatives with the ministers, through every stage of a proceeding, they certainly do not wait for the event before they stamp it with their approbation, and certainly do not insist upon punishing those who had the conduct of an expedition, while they can assign reasons to themselves in exculpation of a failure.' Until the materials for constituting a Representative Government in India exist, the unfettered working of the press would afford a medium for maintaining a highly useful intercourse between the executive power and

the people, whence they could obtain an insight into the proceedings of the state, and be enabled to go hand in hand with those who administer the Government through all the stages of their measures. To that instrument peculiarly belong those animating and healing properties which invigorate and adorn prosperity, while they supply fortitude and consolation in adversity.

I have argued this point on the supposition that papers instigating to rebellion and massacre are secretly circulated to the extent asserted; and endeavoured to show that they afford no foundation for the inferences deduced. But the reader will, perhaps, agree with me in requiring further evidence in support of the facts, when he considers that, of the many Englishmen who have had equal opportunities of observation during so many years, no one had the fortune or dexterity to discover this incessant secret warfare, except Sir John Malcolm; and that he never divulged it till 1824, though he had paid particular attention to it during *twenty-five* years, that is, since 1799. Even when examined by the House of Commons, in 1813, when it must have been an object of his particular attention for *fourteen* years, he not only did not say that he considered the *Brahmins*, and other educated *Hindoos*, to be actuated by the most hostile feelings, and eager to seize every opportunity to spread discontent and excite rebellion, but he said nearly the reverse, viz. "I certainly conceive that the attachment of the *Hindoo* population is the chief source of our security in India." So far was he from professing to have been, during fourteen years, an attentive observer of what had escaped the search of every other person: so far was he from pretending to have had access to peculiar sources of information, and to have penetrated into the most secret recesses of *Hindoo* machinations against British authority, that he said:—"There is, even among Europeans in India the best acquainted with their language and manners, so little of that intimate intercourse with the body of the Natives, which could alone lead to a precise knowledge of their real sentiments upon points of Government, that it is very difficult for any person to say more than that they are apparently contented, because they remain quiet; and that the leniency of the rule, and the general system of our administration, is such as should place us high in the scale of the Governments to which they have been accustomed, and with which they can draw any comparison. Do you think, or not, that the majority of the *Hindoo* population are contented with the British sway at present? I have answered that question, as far as I am able, in what I stated above: they appear to be so."*

* Colonel (now Sir Thomas) Munro's answer to a similar question was as follows:—"Do you not think that the whole population of India, under the British sway, is at present submissive and apparently contented?—I think the great mass of the population is certainly both submissive and contented, both apparently and in reality; but there are

"In order to render a writer capable of usefully advocating the interests of the Natives, Sir John Malcolm requires a list of qualifications, which, he declares, can never meet in an English editor. "It is sufficiently obvious," he says, "that such benefits [i. e. giving utterance to complaints, and checking the abuse of power] could alone result, where those that conducted the press had complete information and perfect knowledge of the languages; the manners, the character, and concerns of the people; where, in short, all their feelings were congenial with those of the society of which they were the advocates." Besides that an editor is not the sole author of all the paragraphs and letters that appear in his paper, it may be observed, that such rare qualities as are held to be indispensable in one who undertakes to narrate passing events, and to record and comment on public affairs, have never been united in those who have been charged with the highest functions of Government. It is needless to say—it is indeed "obvious"—that there are means of ameliorating the moral and physical condition of the Natives, and modes of deteriorating it, and of injuring individuals, which a man may well comprehend without being a ripe Hindoostanee scholar, and thoroughly grounded in Arabic roots. It is no less true that English indigo planters, merchants, and tradesmen, have much more favourable opportunities of acquiring an intimate knowledge of the character and concerns of the Natives than is possessed by the servants of Government. But it is not so easy to understand how their fitness would be improved, if "all their feelings were congenial with those of the society of which they were the advocates;" for that would imply a participation in all the prejudices and ignorances of which it would be their special duty to promote the correction and removal.

"With regard to Native editors," he says, "we cannot expect them to exercise such a privilege within limits that could be tolerated by a Government whose power is at variance with those principles of national independence and freedom which it would be their duty, if worthy of the task they undertook, to disseminate "among their countrymen." If really worthy to be guides and instructors to their countrymen, if acquainted with their true interests, and with the history of their own country, they would never disseminate principles which might not be safely tolerated by the British Government, whose power is not at variance with, but will gain strength from, the gradual communication of every attribute of freedom of which the Natives shall appear susceptible. The grant of a free press would not suddenly impart the desire and power of asserting pretensions inconsistent with the foundations of British

many chiefs and men of rank who held situations under the old Government, who cannot be expected to remain contented under any European Government by which they are themselves excluded from all high situations.'

ascendancy; it would only promote, accompany, and manifest the development of pretensions, which it would be the duty and interest of Government to satisfy, by equitable modifications of its laws and institutions. The advancement of the Native press would exhibit those indications of modesty and imbecility by which they are now characterised.* According to Sir John Malcolm himself, "a very long period must elapse before freedom of discussion and action is naturalised in a land to which its very name is hitherto unknown." A long time it might be under the concurrence of the most favourable circumstances: but does he intend the sun should ever that morrow see? Under the "improvement" which, he thinks, we may, "and ought to impart" to them, does he contemplate the acquisition of a capacity for free discussion by the latest generation? No; "we may change the character of the Natives of India in the course of time; but we never can change the character of our Government over that country." He is lavish in professions of seeking "the accomplishment of just and liberal views by the institution and maintenance of well-regulated colleges and schools, and the circulation of good and useful compositions;" but by justice and liberality, he means the denial of all effectual means of improving the character of the Natives, their everlasting retention in a state of incapacity and exclusion from all offices of power, honour, and emolument, and our perpetual exposure to the dangers with which so unnatural a system is pregnant.

"The non-existence of Englishmen in India, not in the service of Government, except those "who reside there for a period by license," liable to be cancelled at the pleasure of Government, is strangely assumed as an insuperable bar to the concession of a free press. It is said to be incompatible with "a society so constituted," where "there is not an individual" whose reflections on public measures may not be confuted by his instant transmission to England. But the alleged ground of incompatibility would be at once removed by the repeal of the prerogative on which the power of coercing the press by censorship, license, or deportation, entirely depends. That prerogative is the only sign, as far as British subjects are concerned, of the supposed "absolute power," by which some pretend that India is, and ought to be, governed, at the same time that they magnify the multitude and excellence of the checks, under which power is there exercised. The efficiency of the checks which do exist is of no avail to the protection of Englishmen, if they are left mortally vulnerable in a single point. But the very

* For the indifference with which the Natives would regard the privilege, we have the authority of Mr. Elphinstone:—"At present, nobody would take a part or an interest in political discussions, but the Europeans, of whom more than nine-tenths compose the strength of the army."—Letter, dated August 14th, 1823.

existence of so many checks, and the narrow field that is left to the wantonness of arbitrary power, prove that the Government is not absolute, but that there is a higher authority which sets bounds to its discretion, and which will not long permit the continuance of a power in the highest degree injurious to the public interests, and derogatory to the national honour.

On the Conversion of the Natives of India to Christianity.

'The extreme jealousy of the inhabitants of India respecting the interference with their religious sentiments and usages, and their readiness to resent affronts offered to them as attacks on their point of honour, constitute a source of danger to our power against which we cannot always find security in the most careful abstinence from every cause of offence. To excite the spirit of bigotry, and array multitudes under the standards and emblems of their faith, it is not necessary that any particular offence should have been intended on our part, or imagined on theirs: it is sufficient that the moment for revolt should appear favourable, and that adverse circumstances should give a beginning to sedition. Whatever may have originated the impulse, an appeal to religious feelings would never fail to animate their zeal and unite their efforts.

'Under the present anti-colonial system the means of diluting the quality, and reducing the quantity, of this explosive combination, by the intermixture of a due proportion of Native Christians, are not only insufficient; but the timidity of Government leads it so carefully to avoid whatever could be construed into disapprobation of the superstitious rites of the Hindoos, and encouragement of their conversion to Christianity, that the idea may naturally occur to them that they are virtually excluded from the religion, as well as from the other advantages appropriated to Europeans; and even that the British Government, holding with them (whatever Missionaries may say) that a man's religion should be determined by his birth, considers Native converts as apostates, unworthy of admission into the inferior offices to which other Natives are eligible. The practical exclusion of Native Christians from all situations of trust or responsibility is adduced, by Sir John Malcolm, in the first edition of his 'Political History,' as one of a few facts which evince that the British Government have, and, as he thinks, wisely, "discouraged" and "opposed a systematic discouragement to the conversion of its Native subjects." In the second edition of his book, though his opinions on this subject remain unchanged, and though Government have withdrawn none of their support from Native religious establishments, nor bestowed any token of patronage on a single Native convert, yet, in deference to the voice of public opinion in England, and to the establishment of the Bishopric of Calcutta, which has compelled the local Governments to give some countenance and encouragement to measures for facilitating the diffusion

of knowledge, he has thought it prudent to suppress all mention of discouragement, and of the grounds on which it was imputed. He continues, however, to recommend that the Bishop, and all his clergy, and all professors of colleges, should be "prohibited from using their endeavours to make converts:" a recommendation which, ever since it was first promulgated, (in 1811,) there has been, fortunately, less and less disposition to adopt.

' If the French "allowed the most sacred usages of both Moham-medans and Hindoos to be frequently violated," we may surely avoid such palpable errors without running into the opposite extreme. On the other hand, if "the Native inhabitants of their settlements, and the servants in whom the principal officers of Government reposed trusts, were almost all Christians," the inference is that public encouragement to the work of conversion may be successfully and safely afforded; while, in the moral and intellectual qualifications required from converts to Protestantism, and in the sources of instruction opened to them, we should possess additional securities for the prevalence of virtue and the diminution of crime, perjury, and litigation.

' Among the instances of support given to Hindooism, by the British Government, the most prominent is the public sanction afforded to the inhuman rite of burning widows, notwithstanding the opinion of numerous Judges, and especially those of the Bengal Court of Sudder Dewanny, that there would be no danger in abolishing it; and that it prevails chiefly in a province where our authority has been established for the longest time, namely, in Bengal Proper.

' In another instance, the support given to the economy and machinery to the Temple of Jagannath amounts to participation. We are not, indeed, permitted to "bow in the House of Rimmon;" but we assist in maintaining its decorations, and profit by the afflux of pilgrims to its idol. The most learned and graphic description which we have of the procession of Jagannath, his brother, and sister, is from the pen of Mr. Andrew Stirling:—"Their raths, or cars," says he, "have an imposing air from their size and loftiness;* but every part of the ornament is of the most mean and paltry description, *save only the covering of striped and spangled broad cloth, furnished from the import warehouse of the British Government, the splendour or gorgeous effect of which compensates, in a great measure, for other deficiencies of decoration.*" After mentioning the decaying and soon-tired enthusiasm of the people, and the indispensable assistance of a multitude of the inhabitants of the vicinity, who hold their lands rent-free, on condition of performing the service of dragging the three cars at the annual ceremonies, he ob-

* The largest is 43½ feet high, and has a platform 34½ feet square.—*Asiatic Researches*, vol. xv. pp. 322, 324.

serves: "Even the god's own proper servants will not labour zealously and effectually without the interposition of authority; [i. e. of the British magistrate!] and I imagine the ceremony would soon cease to be conducted on its present scale and footing, if the institution were left entirely to its fate and to its own resources, by the British Government."

"The gross amount collected from pilgrims to Jagannath, in 1815-16, was rs. 86,027; the expenses of the temple and other charges were rs. 74,880, leaving, as net produce of the tax, rs. 11,147. Among the charges is one item of "cloth, issued from the import warehouse, rs. 1365." The Court of Directors, in the Revenue General Letter, of October 28, 1814, intimated that they "do not consider the tax on pilgrims as a source of revenue, but merely as a fund for keeping the temple in repair!" The Vice President in Council directed, June 24, 1815, that the net collections should be appropriated,—1. to the repairs of the temple, and other local purposes; 2. to the construction and repair of a road from Calcutta to Jagannath, which was commenced on a donation for that purpose by the late Rajah Sookmoy Roy; 3. to any other purpose connected with the temple of Jagannath. Upon this Mr. Harrington remarks: "But it is evidently indecorous, if not inconsistent, that the Government of a nation, professing Christianity, should participate in the offerings of heathen superstition and idolatry; and the appropriation of the pilgrim tax (as judiciously ordered with respect to the surplus collections at the temple of Jagannath, after providing for the repairs of the temple and other local purposes) to the construction and repairs of public roads leading to each place of pilgrimage, or to other purposes connected therewith, such as bridges and places of accommodation for travellers, whilst it is manifestly a legitimate use of the tax as conducing to the convenience of those from whom it is levied, must also prove beneficial and acceptable to the community. If all the money thus strictly exacted were expended in maintaining the pomp of the idol, and facilitating access to his temple, the transaction would be indecent and impolitic; but we are without even that excuse at other places to which pilgrims resort. At Jagannath, the net produce of the tax is a trifle; but, at Gya and Allahabad together, it is two lacs and a half of rupees.* They cannot be expended on roads leading to Gya and Allahabad, nor have the Court of Directors ordered any such appropriation. At Allahabad, the object of attraction is not an idol, lodged in an extensive temple requiring annual repairs and a numerous establishment, but merely the confluence of the Ganges and Jumna, where a barrier is erected which none are permitted to pass who have not purchased a license for that purpose.

* 'The British Government does not disdain to collect a pittance of about rs. 6500 from pilgrims, to three places in the Moradabad district, and Etawah.'

‘When the progress of colonisation shall have given a new impulse to the diffusion of true knowledge and sound religion, and inspired a sense of stability into Government, these errors, together with the apologies now offered for them, will disappear and be forgotten; and the words Hindoo and Mohammedan, instead of being a rallying cry for nations, will in time become the designations of tolerated, but neglected and declining, superstitions. In pursuing such a course, we shall be animated by the purest motives, and cheered by the visible growth of prosperity and happiness.’

PETITION TO THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT FROM THE NATIVES
OF BOMBAY.

THE reports of the Debates in Parliament on the late presentation of the several Petitions from India, as given in the Daily Papers, render it unnecessary to repeat them here. We take occasion, however, to preserve on record, in this publication, that which has not yet appeared elsewhere, we believe—an authenticated copy of the Petition from Bombay, as well as the Letters which accompanied it on its transmission to this country, and which will speak forcibly for themselves:

No. I.

‘To Sir Charles Forbes, Bart., M. P., London.’

‘MY DEAR SIR,

‘Bombay, April 11th, 1827.

‘I HAVE the pleasure to forward to you a petition to the House of Commons, signed in my presence by all the most respectable Natives in Bombay, Hindoos, Parsees, and Mohammedans, praying that they may be made eligible to serve on Grand Juries, from which they are excluded by the late Act of Parliament, while other Natives of India, being Christians, are made eligible as Grand Jurors.

‘The Petitioners consider (and from your knowledge of their qualifications and respectability, you will, no doubt, agree with them that they are at least equally qualified to serve on Grand Juries with many other Natives of India, who are Christians; and, while they are grateful for the boon conferred on them by the Legislature, in making them eligible to serve on other Juries, they feel their exclusion from Grand Juries as lowering them in the rank of society, and in that general estimation to which their respectability and attainments entitle them.

‘I have been requested to forward the petition to you and to Mr. Hume, that you may be certified of its authenticity; and I shall only add, that I hope it will meet with your support, and with the favourable consideration of Parliament.

‘I remain, with esteem, my dear Sir, your very faithful servant,’

‘JAMES FORBES.’

No. II.

'To Sir Charles Forbes, Bart., and Joseph Hume, Esq., Members of Parliament.

'SIRS,—WE, the undersigned Hindoos, Parsees, and Mohammedans, of the Island of Bombay, beg leave to forward to you the accompanying petition from us to the Honourable the House of Commons, in Parliament assembled, and to request that you will be pleased to present the same to that Honourable House.

'In order more effectually to remove all doubt of the genuineness of the signatures to the petition to the Honourable the House of Commons, the signatures have been written in the presence of Mr. James Forbes, of the firm of Messrs. Forbes and Co., of Bombay, who has kindly consented to forward that petition to you, and to certify to you that those signatures were written in his presence.

'We cannot refrain from expressing our applause of the wise policy of the Act of Parliament for rendering the Natives of India eligible to serve on Juries; and in it we perceive the dawn of those institutions, which will cement the union of his Majesty's subjects in the East Indies with his subjects in the United Kingdom. We beg your acceptance of our thanks for the interest manifested by each of you, in the prosperity and happiness of his Majesty's subjects, Natives of the East Indies.

'We have the honour to be, Sirs, your most obedient and very humble servants.

(Signed by seventy-five Native Indian names.)

'Bombay, February 28th, 1827.'

No. III.

PETITION OF NATIVES IN BOMBAY.

'To the Honourable the Commons of the United Kingdom, in Parliament assembled.

'The petition of the undersigned Hindoos, Parsees, and Mohammedans, inhabitants of the Island of Bombay, in the East Indies,

'Sheweth,—That by an Act of Parliament, passed in the seventh year of the reign of his present Majesty, entitled "An Act to regulate the appointment of Juries in the East Indies," it is, amongst other things, enacted, that Grand Juries, in all cases, shall consist wholly of persons professing the Christian religion. That, while your Petitioners feel, that, by rendering Hindoos, Parsees, and Mohammedans eligible to all Juries, except Grand Juries, their protection is more secured, and that they are greatly exalted in the ranks of society, and that for such benefits they are under the obligations of gratitude to Parliament; yet your Petitioners most humbly submit, that their exclusion from Grand Juries is an unnecessary degradation of them.

'That formerly the Island of Bombay was a possession of the Crown of Portugal, and at which time there were, and ever since have been, many Portuguese Christians residing in it, who were

born, and have always lived, in India; that, besides those, there are other Christians residing in Bombay, who also were born, and have always lived, in India. That your Petitioners humbly represent that many Hindoos, Parsees, and Mohammedans, of the Island of Bombay, are at least equal to those Christians in opulence, intelligence, integrity, estimation in society, and in qualification to serve on Grand Juries. That it is not the intention of your Petitioners to complain of the eligibility of those Christians to serve on Grand Juries: on the contrary, they approve of and applaud it; but they humbly submit, that the wise policy that induced Parliament to enact the eligibility of those Christians to serve on Grand Juries, is equally applicable to many Hindoos, Parsees, and Mohammedans, his Majesty's subjects, inhabitants of the Island of Bombay.

'Your Petitioners, therefore, most humbly pray that your Honourable House will take this subject into its consideration, and adopt such measures as to its wisdom may seem fit, to enable the principal Hindoos, Parsees, and Mohammedans, subjects of his Majesty, and inhabitants of the Island of Bombay, to serve on Grand Juries in Bombay. And your Petitioners, as in duty bound, will ever pray, &c.

'Naurojee Jansitjee,
Bomanjee Hormajee,
Jehangeer Ardaseer,
Dadabhoi Pestonjee,
Jehangeer Hierjee,
Madowdass Ransordass,
Nayandass Herjachoody,
Devidass Huywamass,
Jugonnath Sunkersett,
Dhackjee Dadajee,
Wittoha Caunojee,
Dharsubhoi Premjee,
Canoba Kessowjut,
Moody Sorobjee Vashagandy,
Dossabhoi Jamshedjee,
Rustonjee Ruttonjee,
Hormurjee Bhicajee,
Cursetjee Monackjee,
Framjee Bomanjee,
Framjee Cowasjee,
Jehangeer Framjee,
Momackjee Dadabhoi,
Tapoojee Horabjee,
Keikhusroo Sorabjee,
Jamsetjee Comurjee,
Dadabhoi Jejeebhoy,
Sadassur Cassinath Chutter,
Rustonjee Cawasjee Patele,
Hormojee Eduljee Camojee,
Muddon Peers Ratonjee,
Kazee Mahomed Ali,
Sheikh Hoossini,
Hajee Ebrahim Jetaiker,
Mahomud Ally Rogay,
Sadovdeen Sheikh Gholam,
Mahomud Ibraheem Nucklea,

Mahomud Syed Palolea,
Mahomud Shamsodeen Kessay,
Mahomed Abdul Abubekr,
Mukhdoom Asheroof Moonshee,
Moolla Mahmood Muckba,
Mohamed Ebram Ghuttay,
Mohamed Syed Purkar,
Shumsodeen Londay,
Mohamed Madar Purkar,
Syed Huson B. S. Ahmed,
Bapa Kewel,
Amceroodeen Shaikh Bhicon,
Fugeer Khot,
Mahomud Ebraheem Tangakur,
Shaikh Abdulla B. M. Abdoorhimm,
Abdoolrahman S. M.,
Shuhabodeen Tundn,
Mahomud Enoose Moorghay,
Moolla Ermacal Bin Kureem,
Aadkhan,
Futehroodeen Kurnal Kur,
Kumerodeen Bin Sheik Hamed
Khuttub,
Abdaol Gussar Fusate,
Mohammed Ebram Ramrajkur,
Hussein Mohammed Chorgay,
Fakroodeen Shaik Bhickan,
Shaik Mohamed Palhan,
Carmooddeen Coolcurney,
Zeydoodeen Norest,
Mohamed Alli Pawknoray,
Ruhumodeen Sulud Fuzloodeen,
Goolam Hoosein Onderker,
Mohamed Syde Grubkur,
Abdel Rehman Natkhanday.'

'Bombay, February 28th, 1827.'

THE CASTILIAN BANDIT.

THE foaming charger doth cleave the air,
 And sorely the rider doth strain;
 For soon shall his visage be dark with despair,
 If the speed of his courser prove vain.
 He is laden with rare and costly spoils,
 But death follows grim in the rear;
 Should the bandit be caught in the huntsmen's toils,
 He knows that his last hour is near.

But the courser was swift, the rider was strong,
 And the free hills were their dwelling;
 Like the glance of the lightning they swept along—
 Now the rugged rocks are telling
 That they near that wild and mighty domain,
 Where the huntsmen should not find them.
 The rider look'd down on the far-off plain—
 They were lost in the distance behind them.

He curb'd the career of his panting steed,
 And he gazed around in his pride,
 Then he look'd on the spoil, no worthless meed,
 That was slung by his courser's side.
 'Thou hast served me nobly to-day, I confess,
 My beautiful steed and my strong;'
 Right proud was the horse of his lord's caress,
 And he snorted loudly and long.

'The churls are afraid of the mountain path,
 O'er which their rich spoil has been borne;
 And he whom they curse in their bootless wrath,
 Is content to yield them his scorn:
 Let the world, which cruelly spurn'd us forth,
 Reap the fruit of our lasting hate:
 They will bitterly learn what was our worth,
 When we courted a nobler fate.'

So he gazed on the high, eternal hills,
 And his spirit felt fearless and free,—
 He loved their steep rocks and he loved their rills,
 And he loved in their bosom to be:
 For their stronghold was there—'twas the stern robbers'
 tower,—

And he loved the dark spirits that dwelt
 Their recesses within,—such love hath a power
 By the bandit alone to be felt.

RECENT TRAVELS IN GREECE, ASIA MINOR, PALESTINE, AND EGYPT.

[The following is the substance of a Report made to the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres, by Count Alexander de la Borde, and read at the sitting of the French Institute, on the 24th April, 1828.]

In requiring from me an account of my travels, you cause me to experience the regret of not having rendered them more worthy of your interest; but, to obtain, at least, your indulgence, I will let you know the motives that induced me to undertake them; this will plead as an excuse for me.

Principally occupied in the education of my son, and wishing most ardently to render him, at a future period, worthy of your esteem, I deemed it necessary to make him follow a new system of education, more extensive, more laborious, but which I conceive to be necessary, in order to harmonise with the enlightened ideas of the present age.

This system, which would employ too much time to develop in this place, consists, in its first part, in joining to classical studies, and to a knowledge of several modern languages, a voyage of *application* in the most celebrated countries of antiquity, or, in other words, a tour of the Mediterranean: this undertaking does not, as you perceive, exclude discoveries, but it does not form the principal motive. For the purpose of carrying my plans into execution, and, at the same time, rendering our journey more agreeable and less expensive, I endeavoured to procure for my son some young travelling companions who might wish to partake of this kind of study, and I was fortunate enough to meet with such as I could desire: one of them is Mr. Becker, the son of the brave General of that name, and himself a staff-officer, filled with talent and zeal; the second, Mr. Hall, a young English gentleman, and, the third, the Duke of Richelieu, who quitted us too soon, in order to repair to Odessa, whither duty called him.

After pursuing our studies for some length of time in Italy, and having made a short stay in the Ionian Islands, we arrived on the classic ground of Greece, which so many motives induced us to visit. But the political condition of the country compelled us to change the order of our route, and commence our Travels in other parts of the Ottoman empire. It is, therefore, from Smyrna, where we arrived on the 15th July, 1826, that the researches which possess any interest are to be dated.

Asia Minor, as you are aware, is not, even now, well known; yet, what land contains more recollections and interesting monuments.

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ments? Almost all the travellers who preceded us in this country, arrived from the shores, and seldom penetrated more than twenty or thirty leagues into the interior. We attempted to render their labours more complete by proceeding from the interior, and reaching the points where they had stopped. Our first excursion was from Smyrna to Constantinople, passing through Sardis. This town, the most interesting on the whole road, is built upon an elevation which commands the plain of Shernus: the ruins of its walls are prolonged on both sides of the Pactolus, a small stream which, even in the time of Strabo, no longer contained in its bed grains of gold. Two Ionic columns, sustaining an entablature, are the only remains of the temple of Cybele. Nothing exceeds the elegance of their capitals, the volutes of which are ornamented with palm-leaves. The columns are broken across; but by their diameter it may be calculated that they were fifty feet high. Upon the declivity of the hill, on the other side, is a theatre and a stadium. No inhabitants are to be met with in this celebrated town. A few tents only of Urucks, a wandering tribe, are to be seen on the banks of the Pactolus; and from the top of the citadel of Cræsus you perceive, scattered over the plains, the tombs of the kings of Lydia. They are large mounds (*tumuli*), about sixty in number, among which one distinguishes the tomb of Alyattes, the father of Cræsus, of which Herodotus speaks as the most extensive monument he had seen, excepting the Pyramids, and which indeed resembles a natural mountain. As the historian adds, that this tomb was constructed at the expense of the courtesans of Sardis, we may infer, from its magnitude, that the morals of the people of this town were not remarkably austere.

Leaving Sardis, you cross the Hermus, the plain of Hircania, and enter the chain of mountains known by the name of Soassouf-Dagh, which extends from Mount Olympus to Mount Ida, and forms the separation of the waters of the sea of Marmora from those of the Archipelago.

At certain distances, the whole length of this road, are to be seen fountains erected by beneficent persons, whose names are engraved upon the stone, and generally a verse from the Koran. We saw upon one of them this passage: 'The best man is he who is the most useful to his brethren.'

I will not speak to you about Constantinople: every one has heard of the beauty of its situation, and how few splendid edifices are to be met with. We witnessed in this city three events which particularly characterised our *séjour*,—a revolution, the plague, and a conflagration. After spending six weeks in the house of the Countess Guilleminot, who evinced much interest towards us, we determined to proceed to Cairo through the interior of Asia. The success of this journey depended upon the manner in which we should undertake it, and we therefore avoided the plan followed by

the travellers, Seetzen, and Colonel Bouché, who fell victims in the journey. We determined upon purchasing horses and arms at Constantinople, to put on the Turkish costume, procure a very explicit firman, which the French ambassador obtained for us, and take with us, besides, a Tartar of the Porte, and a Dragoman, with a certain number of experienced servants. In this manner we composed a troop of twelve men on horseback, having each a double-barrelled gun, and stronger, as to fire-arms, than the inhabitants of almost all the places where we stopped. A few paras, distributed in a proper manner, added kindness to respect; and, in the same places where, had we been alone, it would have been difficult to take a few notes, we quietly established ourselves, measuring and drawing the monuments without troubling the inhabitants, or meeting, on their part, with any interference. The low price of provisions in the Levant, renders this mode of travelling but little expensive; and in this way we passed through the interior of Asia Minor, Syria, and Palestine. As it is impossible to give you a full account of the whole of our journey, and the observations to which it has led, I will only indicate to you the principal discoveries and researches that we have been able to make. On leaving the towns of Nicomedia and of Niceas, where considerable ruins are still to be seen, we proceeded towards the west, and to the banks of Sangarius; and scarcely had we arrived near the Lake Sabanja, the ancient Sophon, when we discovered a Roman monument of the largest size: it is a bridge composed of six arches, at the beginning of which is a triumphal arch, and at the extremity a sort of repetition of the arch built against the mountain, and open on both sides for the passage of a Roman road. Ten leagues south-west from Cutahia, the extreme point of this part of Asia, we arrived at a Roman town which no traveller had visited, and which ancient itineraries do not even notice. Its principal edifices consist of a large theatre, a stadium, several porticos in a high state of preservation, and, upon the summit of a small hill, an Ionic temple of the most elegant architecture: the columns are of a single block of marble, thirty feet high; they are fluted, and sustain an elegantly ornamented entablature of the most tasteful chasteness. From the fragments of an inscription which belonged to the pediment, it is seen that this temple was repaired in the time of Adrian, and consecrated to Apollo. This place is called by the Turks, Chapter, and is watered by a stream, which is passed over a Roman bridge of five arches, in as good a state of preservation as the Roman arch which it joins. From Chapter we proceeded to the Phrygian monument described by Colonel Leake: we had the satisfaction of discovering, in the same valley, another similar monument, and, six leagues further, a third much more considerable, bearing an inscription in the same characters. But what afforded us the greatest interest, and occupied two months of our time, was the country comprised between Afroom Karahissar, Denizli, and Isparta, which we visited to de-

to the Pasha. This ceremony pleased us extremely, and we expressed our satisfaction; when a man who had been standing in advance before the band during the whole time, his right hand leaning upon his sword, also advanced three steps, looking at the Pasha, as if waiting for orders. We thought he was the officer of the guard: the answer given to us was, 'He is the executioner.' This made us shudder: the whole East seemed to reappear at this word.

The road from Adana to Aleppo is that which Alexander followed when he went to meet Darius by the maritime pass. The field of battle of Issus is exactly as historians describe it,—a plain, having a mountain on one side, and the sea on the other, which perfectly suited the Macedonian phalanx, where valour supplied the place of numbers. Antioch and its imposing ruins, the groves of Daphne, and the banks of the Orontes, detained us a few days; but the ravages of the plague destroyed all our plans. In traversing the village church-yards, we observed, with terror, the multitude of new graves, and the still fresh flowers which the Turks place upon the tombs. It was in this disposition of mind that we arrived at Aleppo. At a league from this town, the French Consul, M. Lesseps, who was informed of our arrival, came on horseback with the principal French merchants to meet us, but dared not approach us, as it had been decided that we were to perform ten days quarantine. When M. Lesseps arrived at our dwelling, getting off his horse, he exclaimed, 'I can resist no longer, happen what may,' and threw himself into my arms; the other Frenchmen did the same towards my travelling companions, and there was no more question about quarantine. There are so few Frenchmen who travel in the Levant, that the arrival of some of them is a day of rejoicing for our poor countrymen. Alas! two months afterwards, the plague carried off a part of those whom an earthquake had spared.

We departed from Aleppo for Palmyra: this excursion is an isolated episode in a journey of the Levant, as the town itself is in the Desert. It is generally from Homs, or Hama, that people set out. In these two towns, inhabitants are found who are connected with the Arabian chiefs, and negotiate with them to serve as guides to travellers; they are in some degree brokers of the Desert. The most considerable, the Sheik Thala, who escorts the caravan of Mecca from Hama to Damascus, immediately despatched an express to a chief, who, at this period, was much respected—for power is moveable in the Desert; it passes from one tribe to another according to the increase which takes place among them, and the number of new tribes that arrive every year from the Euphrates and the Tigris. After four days, the man arrived who was to conduct us; he was called the Sheik Nahar, of the tribe of the Lions, belonging to the great family of the Anesees. He commanded about 10,000 men, living in 6,000 tents, scattered over a territory of thirty or forty

square leagues. He was a tall man, about sixty years of age, thin and swarthy, as all the Bedouins are, and covered with a sheep-skin, the woolly part inside, and stained with a reddish colour that distinguished him from his followers: he walked with gravity, his harsh features exhibiting, when he smiled, a mild expression, but, in general, melancholy, and indicating some secret sorrows. He spoke very little, and never with emotion. Our arrangements were soon made; but the condition which stopped us for some time, and to which we were wrong in acceding, was, that we should not carry our arms with us: without that, he could not, he said, answer for our safety, and the least imprudence might ruin us. It was with this one man, and three people of his tribe on foot, that we entered the Desert. There were six of us on horseback, with three camels to carry water and provisions. The first day we went as far as the camp of the Benikali Arabs, a part of the tribe of the Embaraka, that extend all along the borders of the Desert from Damascus to Aleppo. During the night, we were roused by the appearance of some robbers. The whole camp immediately was on the stir; and we began to feel the inconvenience of being deprived of our fire-arms. The two following days were not remarkable for any particular circumstance. The men on foot generally went before, to be on the look-out: and sometimes placed themselves upon the backs of the camels, in order to see a greater distance. Uneasy at the least noise, attentive to the least motion, man, a stranger to man in these vast solitudes, is always in fear of meeting an enemy in his fellow-creature. Individuals perceive and avoid each other at enormous distances, and where an entire army would be lost, a man alone cannot hide himself. The Sheik Nahar marched silently before us, halting at different hours to say prayers. One day that he appeared to have lost his road, when he was only seeking for water, which he knew was to be found in a certain rock, we expressed our uneasiness: he answered, without evincing any emotion, 'I have promised the Sheik Thala to conduct you to Tadmor, and to bring you back to Homs; I will keep my word; do not make yourselves uneasy at any thing you may observe; God is great!' He found the water he was in search of. The fourth day, after spending the night in the open air, the cold being piercing, and having no fire, we were marching slowly on, when, turning round a mound, we saw fifteen or twenty Arabs galloping towards us, and attacking our camels, that had remained behind, with their lances. We came back to defend them, and a regular fight with fists and sticks then took place between us; for they were, like ourselves, unprovided with fire-arms. The remainder of the tribe arriving, we saw ourselves on the point of being robbed and left in the Desert, twenty leagues from any spring of water or habitation. Whilst we were tearing each other's clothes to pieces, all our horses were attacking the mares belonging to the Arabs, and the greatest confusion prevailed. Mr. Hall and Mr. Becker were fighting on foot with

This noble and amiable lady, a niece of the celebrated Pitt, had permitted me to pass a few days with her in her solitude: she related to me her adventures, but she did not tell me, what would have been much longer, all the good she had done in the country; the unfortunate alone had let us into the secret.

The province of the Hauran is a large fertile plain, formerly covered with considerable cities, of which a great many monuments still remain. We have brought with us eighty designs or plans of the principal ones, and particularly of the cities of Salghud, Bozra, Canouhat, and, further on in the desert of the Dead Sea, Geraza and Amaun. From the Hauran we proceeded to Jerusalem, by Tiberias, Nazareth, and Naplouse.

We had spent the holy week in Rome, the year before: our arrangements had been so made, that we found ourselves at a similar period in Jerusalem; and it is most interesting to observe the contrast that exists, on these solemn days, between the two great cities of the Christian world: it is all to the advantage of the Eternal City. At Rome, the men and monuments surpass, or equal, at least, the recollections; whilst, at Jerusalem, they are considerably inferior; they weaken and destroy them; one would wish to drive them away. The Sovereign Pontiff, surrounded by his clergy and the faithful, who have flocked from all corners of the globe, giving his blessing to the city and to the world, *urbi et orbi*, from the top of the greatest monument raised by the genius of man, to an immense crowd prostrated in the most profound silence; all this bears a character of grandeur, of solemnity, which is not to be found in Jerusalem. The holy places are guarded by poor monks, of every sect, belonging to the lowest classes of society; worthy people no doubt, but the greater number unenlightened and undignified, occupying themselves and travellers with their private quarrels, daily accusing each other to the Turkish authorities, who make a traffic of their animosities, and are continually disturbing, with blows and insults, the most solemn moments of their ceremonies. These places are, moreover, disfigured by shabby ornaments, and buildings in bad taste. The traveller should see Rome in all its pomp, and Jerusalem in all its solitude; he should wander in the vicinity of his city alone, with his thoughts fixed on the events it recalls; then if he observed these palaces as they are, he would contemplate in the naked rock, the manger, the cradle of Christ, and of civilisation, and in the stone of the holy sepulchre, a lesson of every sacrifice, an example to support every evil, in the hope of every good.

Nothing exceeds the astonishment of the traveller who arrives in Egypt, after traversing the whole of the Ottoman Empire. There he finds sugar and cotton cultivated in the same manner as in India; twenty manufactories, more spacious, and as well managed, as those of Manchester; troops exercised as those of France; in fine, a

Pasha reading the 'Constitutionnel.' Nothing was necessary but the genius of one man to create, as by enchantment, such wonders ; to change, in the space of ten years, the cultivation, industry, manners, and government of a country ;—but is this country happy ? That is what one should examine. Mohammed Ali, uneasy about the future, wishing to operate these changes in a rapid manner, has thought it necessary to make a monopoly of thought and labour, and hasten the moment, to arrive at a result. He has said to himself : ' What I shall have done, will perhaps be preserved ; what I shall have neglected to do, will never be carried into effect.' Hence this violent activity, this over-exclusive avidity of gain, and the continual misery of the country. But let him relax in the too great share which he has taken in the labour ; let him, above all, give up that deplorable expedition which he is now pursuing, and his country will be as happy as he has rendered it skilful. And already he has despatched commissaries into the provinces, to establish taxes in lieu of monopoly. Schools have been formed in various parts ; forty young persons, belonging to the most distinguished families, are being educated in France ; a hundred others are following their studies at Cairo, in a school conducted by a distinguished French officer, M. Plana ; one hundred and fifty are studying medicine, and are preparing successors to the Avicennas and Averroës, after a lapse of ten centuries. On all sides prejudices disappear, as well as ignorance. At an anatomical lecture, at which I assisted, the distinguished Professor, M. Cloté, interrogated, as if by chance, a pupil, and inquired for what reason he was studying anatomy ? ' Because it is impossible to exercise medicine without an acquaintance with the human body,' was the reply. ' But this study is forbidden in the Koran.' The young man, looking proudly at him, answered, ' No, thing which is useful to man can be forbidden in the Koran.' The man, who thus enlightens his country, cannot wish to oppress it ; but, alas ! how many fears these infant institutions, this civilisation depending upon one life, cause on the mind : the axe is suspended over these ingenious looms, the lighted torch is burning near the arsenals, the mills, and the schools. The Arab of the Desert is only waiting for the moment to take possession of his ancient dominions, and lead his camels to pasture in the gardens of Shoubra.

I will not mention the antiquities of Egypt ; every thing has been said upon this subject ; but the language of these curious monuments has just been discovered : a dragoman of Sesostris and the Ptolemies has received birth among us, and Egypt is expecting him to unravel her mysteries.

It was in Greece that we terminated, as we had begun, our travels : we had left her in distress ; we found her filled with hope and confidence. After conquering oppression, she has disarmed indifference. Thanks to the kindness of M. de Rigny, the conqueror of Navarin, we visited these fine countries in vessels belonging to the Govern-

ment, and were treated like friends and brothers by our brave naval officers. Hydra exposed to us an entire population, which, after enriching by commerce its principal citizens, now exists by their beneficence. At Poro we found the Admiral-in-Chief of the Greek fleet, Miaulis, labouring with his own hands in repairing his own vessel. At Egina we entered under the modest roof of Canaris, and we saw this intrepid man as simple and as poor as he had always been, wishing for no reward, assisting at no *fêtes*, and confining his ambition to *heroism*.

Fabvier, in the peninsula of Metana, appeared like Robinson Crusoe in his island, making cannon-shot with marble, mills with planks, bread with roots; in the absence of danger, amusing himself with fatigue, hardly being able to contain his fiery mind in a body of iron.

At last, unfortunate Athens received us in the midst of her ruins. Still living, after so many sieges, a victim to her triumphs as well as her defeats, she no longer contains a single modern edifice; but she continues to exist in her monuments, which are there standing erect, as the genius of ages which barbarism may chain up for a time, but can never entirely overthrow.

On leaving this city, we wished to visit the field where the last battle took place under its walls, where inexperienced chiefs led over an open plain men on foot, without bayonets, without guns, without support. We were shown the Turkish battery, placed at the tomb of Philoppapus, and which carried off large pieces of the columns of the Parthenon. They showed us the most advanced point which the unhappy Greeks had attained, who, already thinking they were about to enter the place, stretched out their hands to their countrymen, when the Turkish cavalry, starting from the ravine, made a horrible slaughter of them; and it was in following the long file of bodies left without burial, that we arrived at the camp of Phalerus whence they had departed. But let us draw a veil over this melancholy picture. Greece is henceforward free, and can no longer cease to be so; her cause has passed, one may say, from the interest of people to the honour of kings. The principle of interference, which till this moment had only been useful to absolute power, is going to give liberty to a people—a liberty which they have acquired by their valour, and which they will one day deserve by their virtues; and, whatever may be the wrongs of the present generation, what man is there who does not wish success to a cause which belongs to the heroic epoch of the human race, and for which so many brave men have again fallen! What traveller is there who does not reflect with delight, that one day, perhaps, a happy and civilised nation will welcome him to this classic land, will do the honours of it in the language of Homer, and will carefully preserve what yet remains of the genius of Phidias, of the glory of Pericles!

After this preamble, I ought to speak to you of the different people who compose the Ottoman Empire, but I can only give you a short sketch. The Arabs, and particularly those who inhabit the borders of the Desert, are still what the Scriptures describe the Patriarchs to be, with their tents, their numerous flocks, their wandering life, and their simple manners. The Greeks, although possessing Sclavonian and Albanian blood, still preserve a great many traces of the ancient inhabitants of their country. With them the same love of place, the same rivalry, the same inclination to theft and piracy, still exist; in short, a mixture of great virtue and great weakness. The Turks, having made but little progress towards civilisation, are still in the kind of feudal state of the latter periods of the empire of Constantinople. This singular coincidence gave me the idea of undertaking a work already advanced, which may possess some interest, and which will bear for its title, 'Manners and Character of the present Arabs, according to the Holy Scriptures. Manners and Character of the present Greeks, according to the Classic Authors. Manners and Character of the Turks, according to the Writers of the Middle Age.' These portraits, to which I have not added a single phrase, a single observation, will, however, appear of great verity; so true it is, that, with nations, as with individuals, vices and virtues are found rather in situations than in characters, and are only modified by institutions.

Notwithstanding the difference of religion, language, and manners, which exists among these people, there are certain qualities which are common to them all, and which seem to belong to the soil on which they received birth. One of the principal, and to which we must pay homage, is the sentiment of hospitality, which is found every where as in the times of Abraham and Homer. In the smallest villages, there is a house for the stranger who arrives, and he is provided for at the public expense, during twenty-four hours, without his name or business being inquired into. Even the forms used in welcoming strangers are nearly the same in the three languages; they convey wishes for what they suppose most dear to you. 'Adieu, my guest,' was generally said to ~~me~~; 'may God preserve your son!' 'Adieu, young man,' said they to my son; 'may God preserve the life of your father!'

Our journal might be opened in any part, and the same marks of interest would be observed. I will only mention one, to give an idea of all the others.

Arriving from Palmyra at Homs, after fifteen days of fatigue and privation in the Desert, we found that we were expected by a rich Turkish merchant, named Hadji-Hassan, to whom we were recommended from Aleppo. This excellent man had been entertaining our servants and horses, who had preceded us fourteen days: he received us with a kindness I shall never forget. He insisted that

we should spend four days at his house, to rest from our fatigues ; and, during this time, his attention to us, and his kind behaviour, could not be surpassed even in Europe. His conversation was witty and instructive ; the principal persons in the town, the governor, and the Greek bishop, visited his house, and entertained the greatest esteem for him. When I was about to leave him, I was preparing to make him a present, as is customary in the East ; and, when I presented him a gold watch and a fowling-piece, ' Do not be angry with me, my dear guest,' said he, ' if I do not accept your present ; other travellers have, before now, forgiven the same refusal ; what you offer me is more than what I have done for you, but below what I expect from your friendship. This is what I ask of you : promise me, when you shall have returned into the midst of your family, to send me the smallest trifle, but which really comes from your country, which will prove that you have thought of me ; for it is not your gratitude I require, but your remembrance.'

Being much affected by these words, I pressed his hands and promised what he asked : ' Stop,' said he, ' we will go out together ; I have sent your horses out of the town, the streets are narrow ; it will be more convenient for you ; and I shall spend the time in your company.' We proceeded slowly, and, in traversing the bazaar, I perceived that we were followed by his domestics, carrying large baskets of bread, which his nephew continued to fill as he passed the shops in the bazaar. ' Hadji-Hassan,' said I, ' you have given us bread enough for our journey.' But this is not for you,' he replied. When we arrived out of town, we found our horses, and a large crowd of poor people who had followed us, and on whom we were about to bestow alms, when our host, raising his voice, ' Keep order,' said he, ' and do not ask these strangers for any thing ; here is all the bread that could be found on sale to-day : it shall be distributed to you : join with me in praying for this friend, that God may protect him and his companions during his journey.'

Excellent man ! He whom you have thus welcomed has returned to his family ; he has received from his countrymen marks of respect which he was far from expecting ; he is quite happy, but he still finds time to think of Hadji-Hassan, and to wish him all the happiness which his virtues deserve.

LINES ON MRS. S——,

A young and beautiful Lady, deserted by her Husband, who went to India.

Oh, blame him not, though he may stray
Far from the fair and true ;
O'er many a dark and luckless way,
And think it faultless too.

There may be light he cannot see ;
There may be lights that lure him on ;
Perchance more fair, more bright than me,—
Some roseate beam of the eastern sun.

Oh, blame him not, though he forsake
One who all forsook for him,—
One who dearest links could break,
To bind a link more dear with him.

No tongue may stain, may wound his nam
I could not blame one once so dear ;
It may be, there's an inward shame
That yet shall claim his blush or tear.

Oh, blame him not, though he forget
The shrine where vows were plighted ;
It may be, he'll return, and yet
Be true to her he slighted.

But when will she then welcome him ?
Grief o'er her beauty threw a gloom ;
Her days of youth closed sad and dim,—
Oh let him weep o'er her green tomb !

The pensive beauty of her brow,
Is like the lights in southern seas,*
Which shed around their death-like glow,
And dim the light of brightest eyes.

M. R. S.

* I remember, in a tropical sea, these lights, called by mariners 'the complaisants,' visited our vessel after a gale. It was hideous to see the sailors' countenances in the beam of this strange visiting light.

THE EVENING HOUR.

THOU art not bright as is the Orient morn,
 That, like a young bride, cometh from the East,
 Beaming with gorgeous beauty—thou canst not
 To universal nature give the hues
 Of her rich loveliness—thou canst not yield
 The gladdening freshness of the early dawn ;
 But yet thy lustre, soften'd and subdued,
 Is not less beautiful—thy chasten'd light
 Not less delicious—through the tuneful groves
 The song of hymning birds is not less sweet,
 Although the strain is not so full of life
 As the wild bursting harmony of morn,
 When the young warblers court the early sun,
 And revel in his glorious beams ; yet still
 Their murmurs are most musical, and soothe
 The wanderer with their pensive melody.
 All things that in the mellow radiance rest,
 Look soft and beautiful—this is the time
 For lovers' vows, and this the thrilling hour,
 When beauty, in the mazes of the dance,
 Looks most voluptuous, and is most beloved.
 And thus it is with man—he goeth forth
 In life's gay morn, and feels a giant's strength
 Stirring within him, and the earth is strewn
 With fruits and flowers, luxurious to the eye,
 That promise him delight. He wanders on—
 His brightest visions perish—all things wear
 The sober hues of dull reality—
 He finds he was a dreamer :—happy he,
 Who, when the joys in which his spirit lived
 Are dead within him—when the fire is quench'd
 In which his youth had rioted, can find
 Food for the restless and eternal soul,—
 That, conscious of its powers, can slumber not,
 Nor sink supine in joyless indolence,—
 In more exalted paths, and presses on,
 With quicken'd pace, to intellectual prime :
 And now the shades are falling—all things wear
 A dim and dusky aspect—and the moon
 Will shortly walk in beauty through the sky.
 The distant rocks and lakes of gleaming blue,
 Beneath her silver beams, will shadow forth
 The beauteous image of a fairy land,—
 Proclaiming that the still and silent night
 Is full of beauty.

POLITICAL AND COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN
WITH CHINA.

IN the last number of 'The Oriental Herald' we laid before our readers certain observations, founded on practical knowledge and experience, on the climate and population of China, and on the civil condition of the people of that country; and, agreeably to a promise made at the conclusion of these observations, we now proceed to give an account of the military and naval power of the Chinese; suggesting, in conclusion, such remedies, by negotiation or otherwise, as appear expedient for placing our commercial relations with that country on a more extended and secure basis.

The military character of the Chinese is such as can only be expected from their narrow and despotic character, in a civil point of view. The slightest consideration of their history, from the earliest periods, will show them to be a people having little or no skill in military tactics. The whole of their internal policy is directly opposed to the right formation of a military establishment. We have inflated accounts of their great numbers; but they are little better than a nominal army, or rather, a sort of police establishment, the instruments of their civil policy. The Tartars overcame them with comparative ease; and, conciliating the established authorities, the defence of the empire was entirely trusted to their barbarous conquerors, on the simple proviso that the Chinese mandarins should be introduced to and united with them, in exercising and confirming an arbitrary authority over the mass of the people. We have shown, on the fairest data, that the population of China does not exceed one hundred millions; and our knowledge of the actual number of their effective troops goes to establish that it is far less than is commonly believed. At the same time, it is but fair to lay before our readers the various estimates that have been given of their military force. These are as follow:

By Lord Macartney	1,600,000
Van Braine	800,000
Various Missionaries	700,000
P. Rodriguez	574,000
De Guignes	375,000

The discrepancy of these estimates, and the consideration, for a moment, of such an enormous military fabric as is stated by Lord Macartney, will be sufficient, we think, to prove the utter absurdity of, by far, the greatest number of these statements. We know that Lord Macartney was imposed upon. His Lordship took the numbers as they were reported to him, without any investigation on his own part as to the correctness of his information. The national

vanity of the Chinese, their pride, and their fears, all induced them to create and encourage the delusion under which Lord Macartney laboured, as to their power and their numbers. No dependence whatever is, therefore, to be placed on that estimate of their military force. The statements of the missionaries we have likewise good grounds for discrediting. They have laid down a methodical system of misrepresentation on all matters relating to China. They magnified the slight advances towards refinement among the Chinese as amounting to mature civilisation, at a time when we well knew that they were only one degree removed from semi-barbarism. The despotic character of the Chinese Government was, with the missionaries, a standard of perfection; and the filial piety of the people was extolled as a high moral attainment, brought about by their own instrumentality. Nothing appeared to the missionaries to be wanting but the conversion of the people, to render China a perfect Utopia. Some vices, it is true, they allowed to exist; it would have defeated their own purpose not to have represented a certain degree of turpitude, inasmuch as their own peculiar labours would be thereby rendered essential. And, pursuing the same tone of exaggeration, the missionaries have stated the population and military force of the Chinese at double the actual amount. De Guignes, of all the practical observers, has given us the fairest estimate on this subject; yet he avoided giving full scope to his knowledge, fearful that in differing too much from previous writers he might be discredited. The following is a more specific account than is usually to be met with, and approximating as near as may be to the truth, showing the number of troops stationed in each city:

First class,	179 towns,	1500 troops each....	268,500
Second....	211	200	42,200
Third	1299	40	51,960
			<hr/> 362,660

This may be safely taken as the full muster-roll of the Chinese military, the greater portion of which is to be considered simply as police. In the gross, this character is thus briefly and accurately described by the Abbé Grosier: 'The best soldiers of the empire are procured from the northern provinces; those supplied by the rest are seldom called forth; they remain quietly with their families, and enjoy their pay; (mostly in kind;) they have seldom to remember that they are soldiers, except when they are ordered to quell an insurrection, accompany a mandarin, or appear at a review.'

This short passage will clearly indicate that, in discipline and tactics, the Chinese cannot be looked upon but in a very contemptible view, as a military people. The missionaries themselves, unwilling though they have ever been to say any thing derogatory to the character of the Chinese, seem to be struck with the dis-

orderly and tumultuous conduct of the soldiery. In fact, the Chinese in this department have continued, from age to age, in a morbid condition, in strict accordance with their apathetic habits and narrow government. If we except the introduction of artillery by the Jesuits, no advances whatever, even to this day, appear to have been made by them, of which they are capable of taking advantage; and, in truth, the Chinese, in a military point of view, sink in comparison with the least powerful nations of the East. For the establishment of these premises, it is only requisite to state the few following facts: That a mere robber ascended the throne of China; nor could he be displaced until the Tartars were called in, who established themselves in the capital, and began a new dynasty: that the admission of the Portuguese to the possession of Macao, was the reward bestowed upon them for repressing a fleet of pirates, which the Chinese were altogether unable to subdue, although a few merchant vessels easily effected the object: and that, again, when an attack was made on Peking, by a neighbouring tribe, the Chinese suddenly invited the missionaries (whom they had previously driven away) to return to them, that they might profit by their knowledge of artillery. To this last circumstance is to be ascribed the readmission of the missionaries into China, confirming the pusillanimous character of the people, who, when their fears were wrought upon, bended to an imaginary necessity, although opposed to their most obstinate prejudices.

In closing these observations on the military character of the Chinese, we cannot forbear to notice an article which appeared in 'The Chinese Chronicle,' received on the 19th of May last, containing extracts from the Peking Gazettes, describing the present military operations in China, which, were we inclined to be jocose, we would say, are on a scale that puts to shame all the modern military operations in Europe. They are truly laughable, but valuable in so far as they completely establish what we had previously written on the subject. It appears, then, that, after a defeat, in which the Mohammedan rebels now disturbing the peace of the Celestial Empire, lost between 40,000 and 50,000 men, they collected on a sudden the *ashes* of the former army, upwards of 100,000 strong! and took up a strong mountain position. Chang-Ling, the Chinese General, attacked them. The rebels stood firm. Musketry and cannon are said to have been tried in vain. They then feigned a retreat; but the Chinese continued their attack *with the wind in their favour*. The rebels, extremely annoyed *at having the wind against them*, dashed with their horse through the Chinese ranks, till Chang-Ling had recourse to a manœuvre which the rebels, particularly their horse, neither expected nor relished. Chang-Ling brought up a *corps of tigers*, (veteran troops disguised as tigers,) and the enemy's horse instantly, and very sensibly, turned tail and fled. But, however galled and alarmed the horse were by this wild-beast manœuvre,

the rebel infantry hit upon an expedient which might have intimidated the tigers in their turn. They dressed a division of reserve in *crimson garments*, which lions and tigers are very much annoyed at; but these were magnanimously met, as may be easily supposed, by Chang-Ling's division of reserve, and routed. Thus the victory is said to have been on the side of the Chinese; and the enemy lost between 20 and 30,000 men. This is the *tiger* version of the battle. When the *crimson garment* despatch appears, if it ever do appear, we have no doubt it will prove equally instructive and amusing.

We have said enough on this particular head to show, that such is the low condition of the Chinese in a military point of view, so utterly powerless and contemptible are they as a warlike people, that they would be altogether unfit to withstand the invasion of an expedition from the northern or western nations, on a much smaller scale than these expeditions are usually composed on. It is the decided opinion of every intelligent person,—persons intimately acquainted with the character and power of the Chinese,—that an European or India-British army might march, in any given direction, through China, and encounter very little or no serious opposition. The Chinese are, in short, a weak pusillanimous race. Altogether undisciplined as they are, (in which all the writers on their country agree,) they are wholly unable to withstand or to offer opposition to any regularly-trained body of men that may choose to overrun the open face of their maritime provinces, abounding as they do in those provisions, and affording those facilities for transportation, of which any body of trained men know so much better how to avail themselves than the Chinese can pretend to do.

In adding a page or two on the naval character of the Chinese, we have to state that the peculiar locality of their coasts, so favourable to commerce, renders their country easily accessible to any foreign naval attack. Considering the nature of their internal commerce, it is truly amazing to find that their coasts are wholly unprotected by a navy of their own. Their unprotected state in this respect involves many important considerations. They are thus exposed to an interruption of all supplies between the northern and southern provinces of the empire; the line of connection between the latter and Peking, being formed by the grand canal, commencing between the two great rivers that intersect the kingdom, and by which is conveyed the tribute in grain of the fertile provinces of the south, upon which the very existence of Peking depends, not alone for its daily consumption, but for the payment of the troops and officers of Government. The proximity of this important line of communication to the sea, where it crosses the Yang-tee-Kiang, lays it open to instant interruption; yet still it is an unprotected place. More open still to any attack, is their extensive fishing trade, along the coasts of the maritime provinces, in which a vast

number of people is constantly engaged. The traffic in salt is likewise liable to similar interruption. But above all, the important article of opium, which, although prohibited, finds its way through every province in the empire, is left exposed to the mercy of the pirate. The traffic in opium is chiefly carried on by coasting boats and small craft from Canton. This article of secret transit is sought after with a greater keenness by every class in China, than ever was the smuggled spirit in this country. Exclusive of its consumption among the lower orders, it is transmitted from Canton to the Court, as a species of tribute to the higher mandarins to conciliate their patronage and favour. So addicted are the Chinese to the indulgence of this enervating drug that they secretly expend about eight millions of dollars, (two millions sterling,) in procuring it. Yet still the navy of the Chinese, for the protection of these and other branches of their commerce, has always presented so humble an aspect, as scarcely to deserve a name. Indeed, were we to say that they have no navy at all, we should not be far from the truth. Their war-junks, as they call them, are so miserably deficient in equipments, that they deserve no consideration whatever. They are wholly inadequate to the protection of their own seas from a straggling pirate; and more than once European assistance has been called to the aid of their Government, and effected, with a few merchant ships, what the whole power of the Chinese navy could not accomplish. Still their self-importance is such, that they have been seen to assemble round British ships of war with as much menace as if they were really capable of doing any mischief. No advocate of their's, however, can pretend to say that they are not wholly distracted on the appearance of any hostile force. Whenever such an occasion presented itself, they beheld it with dismay, and begged and prayed that it should be kept away.

Under these circumstances, it is a notorious fact, that the operation of a few of our gun-boats or brigs of war,—for these alone are infinitely superior to any thing they possess or can equip,—would work a quicker and more powerful revolution, in their estimation, of British character than would centuries spent in mere passive negotiation. But, laying now aside the consideration of the insults the Chinese at one time offered to British power, in the confident hope that such can never be offered again with impunity, we may proceed to examine how our national character may be vindicated and supported with that proud people in a manner more consistent with humanity.

Having, in these pages, and in our former paper on this subject, given the result of our knowledge on the civil, military, and naval condition of the Chinese, with an account of the population and climate of their country, and having shown that we have on various occasions submitted to indignities from an arrogant and pusillanimous nation, greater than those which, in many other instances that could be

named, have led to hostilities, we would now proceed to inquire whether our future relations with them, on a more liberal and solid basis, can be best effected by negotiation; or, without advocating any hostile measures, how the fears of this weak people may be wrought upon, so as to convince them that there are other nations on the earth that possess somewhat more of that power, dignity, independence, and intelligence, which they believe to belong to themselves exclusively.

It is very natural to think, considering the character of the East India Company, and the influence they claim, as a body, with the Chinese, that they could be made an eligible medium for peaceable and profitable negotiations with the Chinese. And, although strong prejudices exist against them as a monopolizing and grasping junta, yet it will be readily allowed that they would deserve well of their country, did they voluntarily exercise the power they profess to have, and make such arrangements with the Chinese as would lead to the re-opening of the ports formerly abandoned, and again make these ports available to British commerce. We would be the more inclined to believe that the merchants of the East India Company would be the true medium for such negotiation, because they know how to adopt, from long experience, that submissive tone, in soliciting the bounty and patronage of his Celestial Majesty, in which alone any kind of petition is permitted to reach the Imperial ear. Between the Emperor of China and the East India Company, it would not be the exalted Sovereign having his vanity oppressed by the proposals of an equal, claiming a joint consideration altogether subversive of the fundamental principles of Chinese policy and consequence; it would simply be the Company still keeping the humble station, as traders, in which Chinese estimation has ever placed them, claiming only, from the bounty of his Celestial Majesty, a renewal of those privileges which, under the beneficence of his Celestial Majesty's ancestors, they had formerly enjoyed. Such a tone of humiliation would be strictly accordant with the previous conduct of the East India Company, as a body, towards the Emperor of China, and would be so highly flattering to his Majesty, that perhaps some good might be effected by it. We have already shown that the Chinese hold merchants, and foreigners connected with any description of traffic, in the lowest estimation; and we are bold enough to affirm that the failure of our splendid embassy to China, some years ago, is chiefly attributable to the intermixture of the representatives of our Sovereign with the merchants of the East India Company. Had that embassy proceeded directly to Peking as it left this country, a more favourable result would, in all probability, have been the consequence; at least, it would have had a more agreeable reception. But the arrangements made before entering on its object, marked it rather as a deputation from the trafficking Company, than the embassy of the British Sovereign.

On arriving at Macao, this splendid outfit was compounded with the servants of the Company; and, as soon as this became known at Pekin, as a matter of course, it produced on the minds of the proud Chinese a firm belief and galling impression that between the servants of the Company and the Ambassadors of the British Sovereign there was an intercommunity of character and interests. This impression was enough of itself to degrade the embassy in the eyes of the Celestial Monarch and his subjects; and there was consequently a strong feeling of dislike created against the whole concern, before the ostensible object of this country became known. But, when the embassy was ushered in, and first made acquainted with the Chinese, *through the agency of the Company itself*, the national vanity received a shock, that rendered any object in view altogether unattainable; and the Chinese all at once determined to treat this magnificent deputation with the greatest contempt, as the only means left him to preserve his own level, and establish his own superiority. We are of the unalterable opinion, that this embassy to China, of which we are speaking, has done an injury so irreparable, that it will require the most skilful management to amend. It augmented the jealousy and alarm of the whole empire; subjected our countrymen to repulse and contempt, and placed us in a far more obnoxious point of view in the eyes of the Chinese than ever we were placed in before. For, besides the amalgamation of the representatives of our Sovereign with the agents of the East India Company, a measure in itself enough to ruin us with the Chinese, what could have been more ill-judged and ill-advised than to place a ponderous embassy upon the shores of a great and jealous nation, and there leave it, (which was actually the case,) without ever consulting the Chinese authorities how far such a step might be agreeable or otherwise. The result proves this: the objections of the Chinese were forthwith manifested, and instructions were given accordingly for instant departure; but it was too late: the ships of war that conveyed the embassy had departed, or were determined to depart, whatever might be the wishes of the Court of Pekin; and thus the Court found themselves saddled with a band of obnoxious foreigners, which they could not possibly get rid of, without conducting them through a large portion of the provinces of the empire—a thing, of all others, which they were known to be averse from, as exciting feelings both of jealousy and alarm, in exposing the internal economy of their country. All these violations of the customs, habits, and feelings of the Chinese took place before one practical step had been taken towards the accomplishment of a single object of the embassy; nor was this all: no sooner did the ships of war quit the port in which they had landed the embassy, than they proceeded to indulge themselves in a system of espionage all along the coasts of the empire than which nothing could be more disgraceful to the embassy itself; and certainly nothing could be more galling to the Chinese, inasmuch as they were not possessed of the power to restrain such proceedings.

One splendid and imposing embassy enjoyed themselves on the land, while the *Alceste* and *Lyra* drifted away at sea; and the Chinese found themselves placed, to their great mortification, in such a situation as they were never in before; and which, we have every reason to know, they will endeavour to avert in all future times. One thing more (perhaps more than all that we have stated) tended to lower the persons composing this gorgeous embassy in the opinion of the Chinese; and, trifling as it may appear, we must mention it, as an illustration and corroboration of the character which we previously gave of this singular people. It was simply this: that the principal person belonging to the embassy was advised and permitted himself to accept of several invitations from the Chinese Hong merchants to join in their extraordinary convivialities. These merchants hold a station in Chinese society so low, that they are obliged, in ordinary etiquette, to bow the knee in presence of mandarins of even ordinary rank; and thus was presented, to the wondering eyes of the ignorant but proud Chinese, the extraordinary spectacle of the Ambassador of a Sovereign claiming equal rank with his Celestial Majesty, and who refused to accord to him the usual marks of submission and respect, quietly and contentedly sitting down at table, and feasting with one or more of a class who had been forced into a degrading station in society, probably as a punishment for some delinquency. In short, when the whole proceedings of this embassy are narrowly examined, it will appear to every one, in the least degree acquainted with the prejudices, the customs, and the habits of the Chinese, that nothing could have been worse conducted; and the complete failure of its object is the only evidence which we think it necessary to adduce, in reprehending and condemning the whole of its machinery. The radical fault in the formation of this last embassy was, however, the amalgamation of the representatives of our Sovereign with the servants of the East India Company, as we have already pointed out; and in all future negotiations that may take place, this, of all things, ought to be avoided. If our relations with China are to be placed on a permanent and liberal basis, there ought to be no mixture of the statesman and the trader in any future embassy which may be formed. There is no doubt that the failure of the last must be ascribed to the Merchants of the Company, and not to the highly respectable body sent out from this country. The Company, forsooth, on this last occasion must magnify themselves into a most important body in China; they must have a royal embassy, and identify themselves with the representatives of his Britannic Majesty; while the Chinese, on the other hand, would not allow one of them the rank or consideration of the lowest mandarin.

The East India Company, of themselves, might, however, effect a very beneficial change in our relations with China. Could they so far divest themselves of their inordinate propensities after self-interest and enormous gain, for the general good of their country,

and for a modest, unassuming deputation, to treat with his Celestial Majesty, or his Government, they might do a great deal of good. But this, we fear, there is little or no hope for; not so much on account of the little consideration and respect in which they are held by the Chinese, and that is low enough, but because we believe that the Company would not approach his Celestial Majesty in a way which would be acceptable to him, and at the same time independent and dignified enough as members of a free constitution, and a powerful, enlightened nation. We are therefore bound to conclude, that the only peaceable manner in which this desirable object can be effected, on or before the expiry of the Company's charter, is the formation of another embassy, proceeding directly from this country to the Chinese Court, without reference to the Company's agents, empowered to demand a clear and unequivocal declaration of the basis upon which our future commerce should rest; enabled to explain the importance and mutual benefits that would undoubtedly attach to both countries by a mutual interchange of their respective productions; that the prosperity and safety of China in a great measure depend on a firm alliance with Great Britain; to represent the outward dangers to which China is, at this moment, exposed by the proceedings in the north and east of Europe; and, finally, to make a clear, undisguised display of our own power as a nation; the means we possess of protecting them in case of danger, or of compelling them in case of refractoriness; of either interrupting or encouraging their coasting-trade, or of disembarking troops, either for their aid or for their subjection, at pleasure. We would not go so far as to say that, like the Roman Ambassadors, our deputies should unfold their cloaks, and abruptly offer peace or war; but that, while our own power was displayed, the olive branch and its concomitants of peace, commerce, and prosperity were the immediate objects of our negotiations; that power should only be spoken of as the offspring of peace and prosperity, and war to show the means by which the objects of a powerful people were to be gained, while dealing with a perverse and ill-disposed nation; in short, we would eagerly desire to see the immediate formation of an embassy for the purpose of improving and extending our commerce with the East, and with China particularly, which would force upon the conviction of that narrow-minded and pusillanimous, though valuable, race of men, that, while we gave them an ample degree of weight and consideration in the scale of nations, we were determined that they should know and appreciate our own.

LINES ON THE DEATH OF A YOUTHFUL BROTHER.

WHY weep we for the dead ?
 For theirs is sweet and calm repose,
 The fragrant slumbers of the rose,
 Whilst we on thorns and brambles tread !

Is it that dark despair
 Points to the future as a shade
 Through which nor love, nor light pervade,
 A cavern deep of gloom and care ?

Or is it that the mind
 Trembles to pierce the veil obscure,
 Which hides from sight a splendour pure,
 A light to strike the earthly blind ?

Why weep we for the dead ?
 They sleep in peace—their sighs are o'er,—
 Their footsteps press a heavenly shore,
 Where not one bitter tear is shed !

Why grieve we for the blest,
 Who smile in skyeey realms of peace ?
 'Tis that we covet their release,
 And envy them their quiet rest !

Why, Brother ! thou hast gone,
 In all thy opening bloom of mind,—
 And thou hast left sad hearts behind
 To wail o'er thy funereal stone !

Why, Brother ! thou hast died,
 When thought was stealing o'er thy mind ;
 And frank, and lively, bright, and kind,
 Thou wert thy doating Father's pride !

Yes ! dear one ! thou hast fled,
 Released from long protracted woes !
 To brighter scenes than earth bestows !
 Then, wherefore weep we for the dead ?

Yet, ah ! the feeling heart
 Will ache to see the youthful die,
 Will shed the tear, and heave the sigh,
 When those they prize to death depart !

Poonah, November, 1827.

ROBERTO.

MONUMENTS, USAGES, AND CHARACTERISTIC SKETCHES, OF THE ANCIENT PERUVIANS.

THE Spanish conquerors, after completely subverting the general government established in Peru, at the time of their arrival, by experience found that they were unable to manage the various tribes scattered over an extensive and mountainous country, without gaining their chieftains over to the Spanish cause, by evincing an apparent interest in their welfare, and that of their followers and dependants. Hence were the viceroys compelled to delegate a portion of their power to the remaining Caciques, whose authority over their countrymen was successively defined and secured by judicious enactments in the laws of the Indies; and in this manner only was it that the white and bearded men were enabled to subdue and hold in check the copper tribes inhabiting the declivities of the Andes. The expedient was, in fact, attended with the most astonishing success; and, up to the present day, the government of the Caciques over those tribes and districts of country where they hold an absolute sway, their peculiar tact for command, their inflexible justice, the order and economy observed in their administration, as well as the facility and willingness with which their mandates are obeyed by men who at the same time know that their leaders have not a single musket to enforce their authority, may certainly be taken as a living example, illustrative of that energetic, and, at the same time, equal patriarchal and consoling government of the Incas, which their descendants, exercising a diminished power, yet so fondly imitate.

If we were to judge from the situation in which all the Indians, inhabiting that extensive district, stretching from the Saint Lawrence to the Mississippi, were found at the time of their discovery, or if we were to draw our conclusions from the actual state of the more southern portions of the same continent, the existence of which Columbus first announced to astonished Europe, with the exception of Chili and Mexico, one would have expected that the ancient Peruvians, confined in the midst of mountains, and, by natural impediments, cut off from all communication with the other natives of their own hemisphere, would have been discovered in a rude and barbarous state. This, however, was by no means the case, as is testified by the confession of their conquerors themselves. Their astonished assailants in fact saw that they presented a perfectly opposite picture, and were surprised to find that they had masters to instruct them in several useful branches of science, and legislators to teach them the art of governing.

Among their most distinguished lawgivers and benefactors, was

Manco-Capac de Tequicaca, who founded an empire which, slender as the Peruvian annals are, it is well ascertained, regularly devolved to the Incas, his successors, for a period exceeding seven centuries. He laid the basis of a new system, and actually rescued his countrymen from a state of barbarism, and, as it were, brought them from the wilds. Religion was one of the chief engines which he employed; and the evident advantages*resulting from his new administration, secured to him the esteem and co-operation of his countrymen. His precepts are still remembered and spoken of with the utmost respect. It would indeed be difficult to find, in the annals of any primitive nation, such an uniformity of maxims in government, and such lessons of practical morality, as those which distinguished the councils of the Peruvian Incas. We have heard of few such extended conquests as those made by them, without the effusion of human blood. We read of few enterprises so signal and noble as those undertaken by the Peruvian Emperors, for the purpose of establishing interior intercourse, by the opening of four great roads, called by them *Antiguyos*, *Collaguyos*, &c., and partly corresponding to the cardinal points of the compass. With the exception of the blood spilt by Colla, in his rebellion, and Atahualpa, in his usurpation of the kingdom, the Peruvians enjoyed uninterrupted peace; and the preceding emperors and rightful heirs to the throne helped to enlarge their dominions, by causing their laws to be extended and imitated,—by example and persuasion, as well as by exhibiting their power and greatness to the minor tribes, and convincing them how much more beneficial it would be, to the interests of a detached and isolated population, to live united under their authority and laws. The goodness of their regulations, framed for the administration of the interior and distant provinces, is strikingly evinced by the fact of the Spanish conquerors, in most instances, having adopted them; and they afterwards materially served as a basis to the code, vauntingly called, by the Castilian monarchs, ‘The Laws of the Indies.’

The plantation-grounds, held in community, and the allotment of the fruits thereon grown, and set apart for the temple, the sovereign, and individuals; those public granaries and dépôts for other necessities, by means of which they guarded against want and scarcity, and established, with a greatness and magnificence which might be said to rival those of Egypt, added to similarly wise and provident regulations for other public purposes, were evidently derived from a fund of prudence, policy, and humanity, which, considering their secluded situation, might bear a comparison with the advances of either the Greeks or Romans in this branch of political economy.

The celebrated ruins of the fortress of Cusco, the stupendous fragments of which still strike the eye with awe and wonder, show

to what an extent the mind of man can carry his efforts, unassisted by the knowledge of machinery. These remains clearly point out that, in the time of the Incas, the Peruvians constructed their edifices with solidity and ostentation. One of the hewn blocks of stone, still embedded in the wall, has been calculated to weigh ten or fifteen tons. Another portion, which lies on the ground near the spot, and appears not to have been yet applied to the purpose for which it was originally intended, is of so enormous a size, as to make it difficult to imagine how, with such simple means as those which the workmen possessed, they were enabled to bring it from the quarry whence it was drawn; or how it was to have been raised to the height of the wall. To pile together stones of a prodigious size, by the aid of numbers of men, and such simple levers only as it is presumable they were acquainted with, may be considered as an astonishing effort in their architecture; yet this power, coupled with the art and regularity of their structures, the proportion and union of all their parts, and the exterior finish by which they were distinguished, are circumstances tending to excite admiration, when we reflect that these works were performed by men destitute of all knowledge of mathematical science.

The construction of the great aqueducts of Lucanas, Coudesurgos, and several others, which, in the midst of precipices, conveyed the water from deep valleys to hills of considerable elevation, and some of which are to this day used, attest the skill of the ancient Peruvians in the important science of hydraulics; and the result certainly deserves to be compared with similar works in China. On the road from Cusco to Lima, the traveller is struck with astonishment on beholding lofty ridges, crowned and surrounded by rows of stone walls, like the steps of an amphitheatre. At first, as he approaches, he doubts whether these are the works of man, or the playful fancies of nature, in that hemisphere so varied and unaccountable in all her productions. On a nearer examination, he finds that these parapets were built, in former times, for the purpose of collecting the waters dripping from the mountain summit, and conveying them to remote parts, often by means of subterranean passages, in aid of agriculture, pursued on portions of land which otherwise would have remained nearly sterile.

Of the knowledge of the ancient Peruvians in hydraulics, another remarkable instance is found in the artificial springs of Lanasca. They are situated on a barren extent of land, which, in the course of time, must have undergone several changes in its exterior appearance. An abundant supply of water is found at one place; yet, by means of digging, the same cannot be obtained any where else in the neighbourhood. Although evidently an artificial work, the conduits have never been discovered, nor the place from which the water is brought. Many similar works unfortunately have been destroyed by the hand of avarice; the tubes, in some instances,

having been made of gold, or silver, they fell a prey to pillage, or were mutilated in search of it. A subterranean aqueduct of this kind was still to be seen in the city of Cusco, as late as the year 1766, having been discovered near the spot on which the Convent of St. Dominic at present stands.

The clefts of hills, filled up with earth, for the purpose of increasing the surface of land susceptible of cultivation, are enterprises which the attentive observer cannot fail to contemplate with admiration and regret. He wonders at the perseverance and economy of the ancient Peruvians; but an involuntary sigh escapes him, when he asks himself the question: Where are now the former inhabitants of this secluded spot, of whose labours this was once the busy scene? Clearly these were works belonging to a community; and the useful custom still observed by the more remote Indians, at the present day, of uniting together like brethren, for the purpose of pursuing their joint labours, during the seed-time and harvest, are so many incontestable proofs of their system and arrangement; whilst the numerous and varied works left behind them distinctly show the progress they must have made in agriculture and the practical part of the useful arts.

The science of the ancient Peruvians, in architecture and stone-cutting, appears the more astonishing when we consider the imperfect nature of their tools and implements, at least compared with those of modern times, as well as their total ignorance of the use of iron. The works left behind them, particularly in Cusco and its vicinity, are really admirable. The temple of that city, its fortress, the half-demolished palaces, together with a number of other proud mementos, still left for the inspection of the traveller, loudly proclaim the genius and enterprise of the original natives. Their most select edifices were, however, destroyed, or greatly mutilated, by the conquerors and their immediate descendants, as well for the purposes of erecting churches and convents, as with a view to extract the gold and silver ligatures with which the stones were frequently bound together. And, after such facts as these, avowed by eye-witnesses and unsuspected parties, or rather by the very perpetrators of the crimes above alluded to, shall we call the ancient Peruvians barbarians? Such a spirit for demolition, or, more properly speaking, such an incentive to the thirst after wealth, as the one above mentioned, would appear almost problematical, if we did not reflect that the Peruvians valued metals only for their utility. Nevertheless, one might feel inclined to doubt the fact, if some of the vestiges of these monuments, marked by the profusion of the Incas, had not triumphed over the lapse of time, and remained as proud and striking memorials to the modern tourist. An ancient wall, still perfect as far as it goes, and since adapted to form the entrance into the Convent of St. Dominic, in Cusco, has luckily survived the ravages of fanatical fury and the restless search after

wealth. In it, the silver melted into the interstices of the stones, in order to fill up the crevices and hold them together, is still visible; and several other remains, of a less remarkable character, may yet be seen.

In the structures of hewn stone, which exclusively belonged to the Royal Family, or were reserved for the most distinguished of the nobles and heroes, three peculiarities are noticed. The first is, that, although the Indians were unacquainted with the use of lime, or any other cement, the stones are so perfectly well fitted, united, and polished, except in occasional instances, and evidently attributable to previous accidents in the quarry, that it is scarcely possible to introduce the point of a knife between them. It must, however, be observed, that the use of gold and silver, as ligatures to the stones, and for the purpose of filling up interstices, and remedying defects in the surface, was confined to the edifices destined for the residence and recreation of the Incas and their favourites; or, at most, extended to the temples devoted to the adoration of the Divinity. The other buildings, such as fortresses and public stores, although erected with great solidity, were, nevertheless, marked with less nicety and splendour. Unhappily, this distinction has deprived us of the most finished portions of Peruvian architecture. Of this peculiar care with which the stones were fitted, there are still many specimens in and round Cusco, as well as in the baths of Huamales, and several others, scattered about in Vilcasquaman, Calca y Lares, Tinta, Lampa, Paucarcolla, and even as far inland as Santa Cruz de la Sierra, on a mountain near Saniaypata, the most remarkable of which will be hereafter particularly described.

The second peculiarity noticed in the architecture of the ancient Peruvians is, that the wrought stones are not always square, but sometimes marked by a variety of figures. Some are round, oval, triangular, whilst, occasionally, they even assume the shape of stars. Nevertheless, they are so well fitted in and dove-tailed, that the solidity of the edifice is not in the least impaired, nor is any inequality observable on the surface. Of this fact, the ancient palace of Limatambo, situated twelve leagues on this side of Cusco, towards the present capital of Peru, is a striking instance. It is a most singular building, and would require whole days for its due contemplation.

The third remarkable characteristic of ancient Peruvian structures, is the enormous size of the stones of which they are composed. To convey them from the nearest quarry to the spot which they were intended to adorn, and afterwards to hew, raise, and fit them, must have required hosts of men, even supposing that the natives had a knowledge of some great mechanical power, the traces of which are now entirely lost. Certainly they had no other beast of burden than the slender lama; and this animal was never applied to the draught. Nevertheless, we find many of these gi-

gantic works constructed on the very summits of mountains, approached only by narrow and winding roads. How, therefore, a large body of men could unite their strength, how they could use an assistant lever, or how they applied the aid of wheels, either in ascending or descending, is an inquiry difficult of solution. Stones of these astonishing dimensions are particularly remarkable in the temple and fortress of Cusco, in the strong-hold of Vilcasquaman, in the palace built on an island, near Atuncolla, and in the desolated towns standing on the islands in the neighbourhood of Capa-Chica, in Paucarcolla. In the insular buildings here alluded to, the component blocks of stone must besides have been conveyed part of the way by water. To the eye of the philosopher, therefore, the advanced state of the ancient Peruvians in architecture, and the execution and finish of their structures, will not appear less admirable than the triumphant manner in which they overcame the natural obstacles by which they were surrounded.

THERMOPYLÆ.

Ask ye whence those sounds of weeping
 Upon the floating echoes ride ?
 Three hundred heroes now are sleeping,
 By rugged Æta's mountain side.

Many a Spartan maid and mother
 Bewail their loss—bewail in vain :
 Brother weeps for the hero brother,
 Who sleeps in death, on that red plain.

And Sparta's bravest all are gone,
 The warrior king who led them on,
 Silent in death : and all but one,
 Who liv'd the patriot tale to tell,
 Lie stretch'd, unyielding, where they fell.

J. D. H.

UNPUBLISHED LETTER OF THE ABBÉ DUBOIS ON THE
CONVERSION OF THE NATIVES OF INDIA.

[THE following has been communicated to us as an original and unpublished Letter of the Abbé Dubois, on the subject of Proselytism in India; and, without holding ourselves responsible for all the facts or opinions therein stated, we think it of sufficient interest and importance to deserve publication in our pages.]

SOME time ago, when conversing with you about the question of Proselytism in India, which seems to have of late so much occupied the attention of the public at home, and been the subject of so much conversation and discussion, even among enlightened persons, you appeared surprised at the freedom and candour of my opinions on the subject, when coming from a person of my profession; and, in order to justify them, I promised you a further discussion, in writing, on this important question. I will now fulfil my promise, and undertake to perform the task, if not with ability, at least with fairness and candour.

The question to be discussed is reduced to these two points, 1. Is there a possibility to make converts to Christianity among the Natives in India? 2. Are the means employed for this purpose, and, above all, the translation of the Holy Scriptures into the idioms of the country, likely to conduce to this wished-for object? To both questions I answer, without hesitating, in the negative; and it is my decided opinion, 1. That, in the actual circumstances, there is no human possibility of converting the Hindoos to any sect of Christianity: 2. That the translation of the Holy Scriptures circulated among Natives, so far from conducing to this end, will only tend to increase their prejudices against Christianity, and prove, in many respects, detrimental to it.

These assertions, on the part of a person of my profession, will appear bold, nay, scandalous, to many; but I shall endeavour to support them by proof.

Before I go further, it will not be amiss to say a few words about the manner in which the Christian religion was at first introduced into the country, and about the industry with which its interests were managed by the first Missionaries.

The Christian religion, of the Catholic persuasion, was introduced into India, as every one knows, about 300 years since, at the epoch of the Portuguese invasions. One of the first Missionaries was the famous St. Francis Xavier, a Spanish Jesuit of the greatest merit. Animated with a truly apostolic zeal, for which he was styled the Apostle of India, he over-ran several provinces of the Peninsula, and is said to have made many thousand converts at that time, when the prejudices of the Natives against the Christian religion were not at the height they have now reached. The caste of fishermen at

Cape Comorin, who are all Christians, still boast and pride themselves to be the offspring of the first Christians converted by the apostle of India.

In the mean while Xavier soon discovered in the education, the manners, and prejudices of the Natives, an insurmountable bar to the progress of the Christian religion among them; as appears from the printed, and still extant, letters which he at several times wrote on the subject to his superior, St. Ignatius de Loyola, the founder of the order of Jesuits.

At last Xavier, entirely disheartened at the invincible obstacles he every where met with in his apostolic career, and at the apparent impossibility of making true converts among the Natives, left the country, through disgust, after a stay in it of only two years, and embarked for China, where his holy labours were crowned with far greater success, and where he laid the foundations of those numerous and flourishing congregations of Catholic Christians, who, within a period of less than a century, amounted to more than a million of converts, when their daily-increasing number, threatening to supplant the religion of the country, excited the jealousy and alarms of the Mandarins and other directors of the popular faith, and gave rise to one of the severest persecutions ever recorded in the annals of Christianity, which finished by having all the converts entirely extirpated, and which, after a period of nearly 200 years, is not yet abated; as appears from the conduct observed to this day by the China rulers towards the Europeans trading on their coasts.

But, to return to our subject. The disappointment and want of success of the Jesuit Missionaries in India ought, it would seem, to have been sufficient to damp the most ardent zeal of the persons disposed to enter on the same career. In fact, when a person of the temper, talents, and virtues, possessed by Xavier, had been baffled in his attempts to introduce Christianity into the country, it might be that nobody could flatter himself to be successful in the same undertaking, and the design should have been laid aside. However, this was not the case; and his Catholic Jesuit brethren in Europe were not to be deterred from their purpose by difficulties in the undertaking, where the cause of religion was at stake.

In consequence, Missionaries from every Catholic country were sent to India to do the work of proselytism by little and little. Jesuit Missionaries introduced themselves in the interior provinces. They saw, that, in order to fix the attention of these people, gain their confidence, and get a hearing, it was indispensably necessary for them to respect their prejudices, and even to embrace them in many respects, in the manner of living, of conversing, of eating, of dressing themselves; in a word, in a great degree conforming themselves to the customs and practices of the country.

In conformity to this rule, they, at their first onset, announced themselves as European Brahmins, come from a distance of two thousand leagues, from the western parts of the world, for the double purpose of imparting and receiving knowledge with their brethren Brahmins in India. Almost all these first Missionaries were more or less acquainted with astronomy or physic, the two sciences best calculated to ingratiate them with the Natives of every description.

After announcing themselves as Brahmins, they in fact imitated this caste of Indians in their dress, their practices, their victuals, &c. &c. They put on a dress of a yellow colour, which is that of the religious teachers and priests in the country. They made regular ablutions every day; whenever they showed themselves in public, they impressed on their foreheads, with dust of sandal wood, some one of the signs worn by Brahmins; and they scrupulously abstained from every kind of animal food, as well as from intoxicating liquors, entirely faring, as do Brahmins, upon vegetables and milk; in a word, following the example of St. Paul and the Apostles, *'Unto the Jews they became as Jews, that they might gain the Jews—to them who were without law, as without law:—they were made all things to all men, that they might by all means save some.'*

It was through such a life, of almost incredible privations and restraints, that the Missionaries established themselves among the Indians. Seeing the invincible attachment of the Natives to their practices, even the most trifling, they had the policy not to hurt their feelings on this point, by attacking all at once the superstitions with which the most part of these practices were accompanied: they judged it prudent to shut their eyes to them, and wait a proper time for putting the converts right on this subject.

Their colour, their talents, their virtues, and, above all, their perfect disinterestedness, rendered them recommendable even to the Indian Princes, who, astonished at the novelty and singularity of the case, bestowed their protection on those extraordinary men, and gave them a full freedom to preach their religion and make converts.

They commenced their labours under these favourable auspices, and made a great number of converts among every caste of Natives in all the countries where they were allowed the free exercise of their religious functions. It appears, by authentic lists, (made about seventy years ago,) that, at that period, the number of Native Christians in these provinces was about 215,000; viz. in Marwar-labar, 30,000; in Madura, 100,000; in the Carnatic, 60,000; in Mysore, 25,000: at the present time, hardly a fourth part of these numbers are to be found in the several countries. I heard that the number was far more considerable on the other coast from Goa to Cape Comorin; but of these I never saw authentic lists.

Things were carried on in this manner by the Jesuit Missionaries in India, when severe complaints against them were brought from

several parts to the Holy See, at Rome. The accusers were chiefly priests of several other religious orders, settled at Goa and Pondicherry, who charged the Jesuits with the most culpable indulgence, in tolerating all kinds of idolatrous superstitions among the new converts, and with having themselves become converts to the idolatrous worship of Indians, by embracing, in many respects, their manners and superstitious practices, rather than having made Indian converts to the Christian religion.

The accusation was, (for the reasons alluded to above,) well-founded in some respects, though not to the extent stated by the accusers; whose accusations seem to have proceeded rather from motives of envy and jealousy against the Jesuits, than from a zeal for the cause of religion.

These often-repeated accusations gave rise to a long correspondence between the interested parties, in which the Jesuits, in giving to the Holy See an account of their conduct, did not conceal that, through motives of prudence, and not to revolt the Natives and prejudice them more and more against the new religion, they were under the unpleasant necessity of overlooking many reprehensible practices, waiting for a more favourable time to eradicate them, and exposed the dangers that could not fail to ensue, if those practices were all at once opposed and condemned before the Christian religion had laid a solid footing in the country. They endeavoured to give weight to their assertions, and excuse their conduct, by the example of the Apostles themselves, who, at the commencement of their apostolic career, in order to encourage conversion among the Jews, judged it prudent to tolerate circumcision among them, as well as to *abstain from things strangled and from blood.*

These reasons, and many similar ones, appeared impious to the Holy See: the Missionaries were reprimanded by the Pope, and peremptorily ordered to announce the Catholic religion in all its purity, and to suppress, all at once, the superstitious practices till then tolerated among the converts.

The Jesuits, on their side, seeing that their following such directions would not only put a stop to all further conversions, but also occasion the defection of a great many converts, rather than give up their point, made new remonstrances, sent deputations to Rome in order to enlighten the Holy See on the subject; and this scandalous contest lasted more than forty years before it came to an issue.

In the end, the Holy Father, wishing to bring this business to an issue, sent a Cardinal, (Cardinal de Fournon,) to India, with the title of Apostolic Legate, to make personal inquiries on the subject, and report all the details to the Holy See. The Cardinal landed at Pondicherry, about 70 years ago; and, on his arrival, having sent for some of the principal Jesuit Missionaries who exercised their functions in the Upper Country, had all matters minutely investigated, and made his report to the Pope.

After some further delay, the famous and very learned Benedict the XIV. having been raised to the Papal chair, and wishing to put at once a stop to this contest by a decisive step, issued a very rigorous bull or decree, by which, in several articles, he formally and expressly condemned and reprobated all the superstitious practices, (a list of which was contained in his decree,) till then tolerated by the Missionaries, and required that all Missionaries, of whatever order or quality they might be, should bind themselves, by a solemn oath, taken before a bishop, to conform themselves, without any tergiversation whatever, to the spirit and letter of the decree, and that those who refused to take the oath, should be deprived of their spiritual powers, and sent back to Europe. It was, besides, ordered, to read and publish the decree on Sunday, in all churches and chapels, in presence of the congregations of Natives; and a promise of submission to it was to be required from all Christians.

This decree was obeyed by the Missionaries, though with extreme reluctance. At the same time, what they had foretold happened: a great number of converts chose rather to renounce the Christian religion than to abandon their practices; a stop was put to conversions, and the Christian religion soon began to become odious to the Indians, on account of its intolerance.

At that very time happened the European invasions; and those bloody contests between the French and the English Europeans, till then hardly known to the Natives in the interior of the country, introduced themselves in every part of the country. The Natives now became convinced that those Missionaries, whom their colour and other qualities had represented to them as such extraordinary persons, as men coming from another world, were nothing more than disguised conquerors, and that their religion, their original education and manners, were the same with those of the vile, the contemptible people who had of late overrun their country.

This proved the last blow to the interests of the Christian religion in India; apostacies became then almost general; no more conversions were made; and the Christian religion became more and more an object of contempt and hatred, in proportion as the European manners became better known to the Indians.

At that same period the total destruction of the order of Jesuits in Europe took place; and, there being no longer a sufficient number of European Missionaries, a National Black Clergy was formed, and the attendance on the remaining congregations of Natives intrusted to their care: these latter, being in general men without education, and generally showing themselves more attached to their own interests than to those of religion, enjoy no confidence nor consideration, even among their flocks, and are held in the greatest contempt every where among the Natives.

Such is the abridged history of the rise, the progress, and the decline of the Christian religion in India. The low state to which

it is now reduced, and the contempt in which it is held, cannot be surpassed. There is not now in the country (as mentioned before) a fourth part of the Christians who were to be found in it 70 years ago; and this reduced number diminishes every day by frequent apostasy.

The Christian religion, which was formerly an object of indifference, or at most of contempt, among the Natives, is now become an object of horror. It is certain, that in a period of 60 years no more converts have been made to it: those who are yet to be found in the country, and whose number, as I have just said, diminishes every day, are the offspring of the converts made by the Jesuits before that period; or, if a very small number of proselytes are still made, from time to time, it is only among the lowest castes, or among individuals, who, driven out from their tribe on account of their vices, have no other resource left than to become Christians; and you will easily fancy that such an assemblage of the offal and dregs of the community only tends to increase the aversion entertained by the other castes against Christianity.

In fact, how could the cause of this religion prosper against so many insurmountable objects? A person who embraces it becomes, in doing so, a proscribed, an outlawed man: he loses all that may attach a man to life. A father is forthwith forsaken and deserted by his own wife and children, who obstinately refuse to have any further intercourse with their degraded parent and husband: a son is driven out from his paternal house, and repudiated by those who gave him birth. By embracing the Christian religion, an Indian loses his all; relations, kindred, friends, all desert him; goods, possessions, inheritance, all disappear. Where is the man capable of bearing such severe trials as these?

The very name of Christian carries along with it the badge of infamy; and the mere proposal to become a convert to Christianity is considered, (as I have seen in repeated instances,) by every honest Indian, as an insult. Such a proposal ought always to be made with much prudence and caution, in order not to expose the party making it to severe retorts from those to whom it is addressed.

The name of Christian is now become so odious that, in many parts of the country, an Indian who should happen to have friends, or a familiar intercourse with persons of this religion, would not dare to avow it in public; or, should he do it, he would be exposed to severe reprimands for keeping connexions with such vile men.

Such is the state of degradation to which Christianity has been reduced in these latter times; which evil must be, in a great measure, imputed to the immoral and scandalous conduct of the Europeans now living in every part of the country.

Besides the Native converts of the Catholic persuasion, there are still, in some parts of India, small Christian congregations, of the

Lutheran sect; but these are held, if possible, in a still higher degree of contempt than the former.

The Lutheran mission was established at Tranquebar, about a century since. There were at all times, among the Missionaries of this persuasion, many respectable persons, commendable for their virtues and talents; but their labours made no impression on the Natives, and they had at all times but very trifling success. It could not be otherwise. The Protestant religion is too simple in its worship to please Indians; and, as it has no show, no external ceremonies, it has been, on this account, in every case disliked by them, and has never made any impression.

If any of the Christian modes of worship be calculated to gain ground in India, it is, no doubt, the Catholic one; which you, Protestants, style an idolatry in disguise. It has a *poodja*, or sacrifice; (mass is called, by Indians, the *poodja*;) it has processions, images, statues, *tirtam*, or holy water, *titys*, or prayers for the dead, invocations of saints, &c. &c.: all which practices bear more or less resemblance to those which are practised by Hindoos. Now, if even such a mode of worship is become so hateful to the Indians, how can it be rationally expected that any of the simple Protestant forms shall ever be liked by them?

The contrary has been, in fact, the case till now; and, as I have before observed, the Lutheran Missionaries had, during a century past, no sensible success in the work of proselytism. At present, their congregations are reduced to four: one at Vepery, near Madras, composed of about 700 or 800 Christians; another at Tranquebar, consisting of about 1200; a third at Tanjore, of between 500 and 600 persons; and the fourth at Trichinopoly, of about the same number. They have still some Christians dispersed here and there, but in so small a number that they do not deserve the name of congregation.

Meanwhile, I do not believe that even these four congregations are composed of converted Hindoos; two-thirds, at least, of these Lutheran Christians are *Catholic apostates*, who went over to the Lutheran religion in times of famine, or other distressing circumstances; as the Lutheran mission, which was always in affluent circumstances, used, in such distressing times, to give assistance to the distressed Catholic Natives, on the condition of their becoming converts to their persuasion. This fact is well known on the coast; and you may depend upon it.

Such a way of making converts will not, perhaps, appear very fair to many; nor conversions, made through such means, very sincere; but it is the same: they avail, at least, to swell the lists of conversions kept by the Lutheran Missionaries, which, without that, would prove very small indeed.

It is extremely common, on the coast, to see Natives who pass

successively from one religion to another, according to their interests. When I was at Madras, three years ago, I knew a number of Native Christians who regularly changed their religion twice a year, and who, for a long time, were in the habit of being six months Catholics, and six months Protestants!

Besides the Lutheran sects, the Moravian Brethren sent also Missionaries to India, about eighty years ago, to make converts to their own persuasion. These founded an establishment at Tranquebar; but, on their first arrival, they were so amazed and appalled at the difficulties to be overcome for the purpose, among a people constituted as Indians are, that they very judiciously dropped their design, without even making the attempt. They afterwards tried to convert the savages of the Eastern Islands, but without any success; at last, after remaining at Tranquebar, under the title of *artificers*, during a period of nearly sixty years, they were called home, about twenty years ago; and this sect now no longer exists in India.

The sect of Nestorians, in Travancore, is generally known. A curious account of them is given by Gibbon, in his 'History of the Roman Empire'; but a still more detailed account, in two volumes, had been before given in French, by the historiographer to the late Frederick, King of Prussia. Other French authors speak of them; but I am surprised at the gross exaggeration of these authors, on this and many other points.

The truth is, that these Nestorian Christians, whose ancestors are supposed to have reached the Travancore country, about the seventh century, when Nestorianism was violently persecuted in Persia, amounted once to more than sixty thousand. The Portuguese, on their first arrival in India, about 300 years ago, hearing of them, introduced themselves into their country, and, in one way or another, converted the most of them to the Catholic persuasion. Their liturgy has always been, and still is, in the ancient Syriac language, and it is used in all their religious ceremonies. There remain still among them large congregations, to the amount of about 45,000 Christians, of whom about thirty thousand are Catholics, and fifteen thousand Nestorians. They are designated in their country under the vile appellation of pariahs, and held by Hindoos in a still greater contempt than the Christians of these countries. The Hindoos chiefly keep them at the greatest distance, and they form quite a separate body in the community. Both Catholics and Nestorians have a Native clergy of their own, and they are equally ignorant, neither having the means of receiving a proper education. As the liturgy of both is in Syriac, all the science of their clergy is reduced to reading, or rather spelling, this dead language, in order to be able to perform their religious ceremonies; but you may rest assured that there is, at this time, no one, either among the Catholic or the Nestorian clergy, capable

of understanding; and explaining two phrases of their church books. They have no houses of education, no teachers, no professors, but only some schools kept by these ignorant priests, for the purpose of teaching the reading of this language to the young persons destined to become clergymen.

When the Jesuits flourished in India, they took particular care to give a good education to the persons of this description; and those among them who showed any capacity for the sciences, were sent to Goa for education, whence they were sent back to their country to be promoted to holy orders; but, since the destruction of the Jesuits, the clergy being reduced to their own resources, it must not appear surprising, if their education is fallen to the low state in which it is now seen.

Those famous Christians, whose merit Buchanan extols so much, and among whom, he says, we ought to seek for the purity of the doctrine of the primitive church, are a set of ignorant beings, notwithstanding that the Reverend Gentleman was so anxious to introduce them to the notice of the church; in which attempt, however, it appears his zealous endeavours proved unsuccessful.

The Catholic Syrians depend for their religious concerns upon the bishop of Cranganore, near Cochin; and the Nestorians have a bishop of their own sect and caste. I was not a little surprised, in perusing Buchanan's book, to see him, in speaking of his interview with this bishop, put him in parallel with the famous, the learned, and eloquent John Chrysostom, Bishop of Antioch, in the fourth century, and one of the pillars of the church at that period. There is a degree of impudence (not to say blasphemy) that cannot be borne in so extravagant a comparison. The truth is, that this new John Chrysostom was insane when Buchanan visited him; so insane that he was not allowed to perform his religious functions. He died about five years ago; and, as the state of insanity under which he laboured did not allow him to consecrate his successor before his death, this circumstance threw all his clergy into the greatest difficulties, because, the deceased bishop having left no successor, no inferior clergy could afterwards be ordained. In order to supply this defect, the priests had recourse to the following trick, which is curious enough to be related here: Having, before beginning the ceremonies of his funeral, pointed out a priest to be the successor of the deceased, they carried the corpse to the church, had it dressed in his pontifical robes, and placing it in an arm-chair, the new candidate knelt down at its feet, whilst two other priests, lifting up the hands of the corpse, imposed them on the head of the priest; and, after this impious and sacrilegious ceremony, they proclaimed him as lawfully ordained by the imposition of hands, and as the new Bishop and successor of the deceased. However, the trick was discovered, and all the congregations refused to acknowledge this new bishop, ordained by a corpse.

This instance will give you an idea of the character of the persons to whom it relates,—of those depositaries (in Buchanan's opinion) of the primitive faith of the church of God.

You may depend upon the authenticity of my accounts, with respect to these Syriac congregations. I derive my information on these subjects from several Syriac priests, and a great number of other Christians of the same rite, with whom I conversed in my last stay on the coast. They all remembered well Buchanan's visit to them, and related many stories on the subject.

I shall here put an end to the first part of the discussion I have undertaken. What I have said on the state of Christianity in India, in this, and in former letters, will, I believe, be sufficient to make out what I advanced, that there remains, in the present circumstances, no human possibility of introducing the Christian religion among the Natives, with any hopes of success. I will now pass to the second point: that is, that, should such a possibility exist, the means now employed for the purpose, and, above all, the translation of the Bible into the idioms of the country, circulated among the Natives, will prove not only quite inadequate to this object, but also prejudicial to the interests of religion. This argument will appear a paradox to many who are but imperfectly acquainted with Indian prejudices; but I have no doubt of proving it to your satisfaction.

You would, perhaps, look upon me as unfit to give an unbiassed opinion on this topic, if, in common with many Protestants, you entertained the unfounded idea, that the reading of the Holy Scriptures is forbidden to Catholics: this is one of the many calumnies spread against Catholics, to make them odious to the other sects. So far from this being the case, at least in France, the study of the Holy Scriptures is every where strongly recommended, and forms a leading feature of education in every seminary. What is forbidden Catholics on this subject is, that they shall not presume to interpret the text of the Scriptures in a sense different from that of the Church. As for me, from the age of twenty years, my Bible has accompanied me every where, and hardly a day has passed without my reading something of this divine book: it has constantly proved my consolation in all the trials to which I was exposed; and this book is the one I have always read over without weariness or disgust.

After having put you in the right on this point, I will resume my subject, and prove that the naked text of the Bible, exhibited without a due preparation to Indians, must prove detrimental to the Christian religion, and increase their hatred against it, inasmuch as this Sacred Book contains, in a thousand places, accounts that cannot fail deeply to wound their feelings, by hurting their prejudices, held most sacred.

To you, who are acquainted with Indian ~~manly~~ ^{manly} ~~from~~ ^{from} ~~prejudices~~, I will put the following questions:

What will an honest Indian think, when, in reading over this holy book, he sees that Abraham, after receiving (without knowing them) the visit of three angels, under a human shape, entertains his guests, by having a calf killed, and served to them for their fare? The prejudiced Indian will, all at once, judge that both Abraham and his heavenly guests were nothing more than vile and infamous pariahs; and, without further reading, he will immediately throw away the book giving, in his opinion, such odious accounts.

What will a Brahmin say, when he reads in the Bible the accounts of the bloody sacrifices prescribed by the Mosaic law in the worship of the true God? He will assuredly say, that the God who was pleased with the blood of the victims immolated in his honour, ought to have been a deity of the same kind and dispositions (far be from me the blasphemy) with the mischievous Indian deities, Caly, Mahry, Darmarajah, and other infernal gods, whose wrath cannot be appeased but by the immolation of living victims, and the shedding of blood.

But, above all, what will be thought by a Brahmin, and every other honest Hindoo, if he peruse in our holy books the accounts of the immolation of the victims held most sacred by him? What will be his feelings, when he sees that the immolating of bullocks and oxen constituted a principal feature of the religious ordinances of the chosen people, and that the blood of these most holy victims was almost always shed at the altars of the God they adored?

What will be his feelings, when he sees that, after Solomon had, at immense expense and labour, built a magnificent temple in honour of the true God, he makes the *protesta* or consecration of it, by having twenty-two thousand bullocks slaughtered, and by overflowing his new temple with the blood of these sacred victims? He will certainly, on perusing, in his opinion, such sacrilegious accounts, be seized with the liveliest horror: he will look upon the book, in which are contained such details, as an abominable work; (far be from me, again, the blasphemy—I am expressing the feelings of a Pagan;) throw it away with indignation; consider himself as polluted for having touched it; look on his house as defiled, too, for having ignorantly kept it in it; go immediately to the river for the purpose of purifying himself, through ablutions, from the pollution he contracted by touching and reading this book; and, before he again enters his house, he will send for a Poorohita Brahmin, in order to perform the requisite ceremonies for purifying it from the defilement impressed on it, by ignorantly keeping in it so polluted a thing as the Bible. At the same time, he will be more and more confirmed in his prejudices against the Christian religion, and become fully persuaded that a religion whose origin is derived from so impure a source is quite detestable, and those who profess it the most vile and base of men. Such are the effects that, in my humble

opinion, the reading of the naked text of the Bible, calculated to produce on the unprepared minds of the prejudiced Indians, as they

I have only quoted the above instances; (these being the first which occurred to my mind in writing these pages); but I could point out, in almost every page of our Holy Books, passages almost equally exceptionable, and which it would prove equally unwise to exhibit, without previous preparations and explanations, to the prejudiced Natives.

It is, therefore, my decided opinion, that to open all at once, and without due preparation, this precious treasure to Indians, is the same with endeavouring to cure a person labouring under severely sore eyes by obliging him to stare at the rays of a shining sun, at the risk of making him blind, or at least of being dazzled and confounded by an excess of light: it is exactly (to use the language of Scripture) '*to give that which is holy unto the dogs, and cast pearls before swine*;' it is '*to put new wine into old bottles, which break, and the wine runneth out, and the bottles perish*.'

In order to give you an instance of the delicacy of the feelings of all Hindoos, with respect to the accounts found in our holy books that are in opposition to their prejudices, I will relate the following example:

Being at Carrical, about twenty-two years ago, I preached, on a Sunday, to the assembled congregation, a sermon on the divine origin of the Christian religion. Among many other topics to prove my subject, I insisted on the intrinsic weakness of the means employed in the establishment of this religion, entirely destitute of all human support, and left to its own resources. I many times said, in treating this topic, that it had for its founder a man of Galilee, the son of a humble carpenter, who took for his assistants twelve ignorant fishermen. These words, 'the son of a carpenter,' 'twelve fishermen,' often repeated, gave offence to my audience, all composed of Christian Natives; and the sermon was no sooner finished, than three or four of the principal among them came and told me that the whole congregation had been scandalised, by hearing me apply to Christ the very improper appellation of 'the son of a carpenter,' and to his apostles that of 'fishermen;' that I was not ignorant of the caste of both carpenters and fishermen being two of the lowest among the Hindoos; that it was, by all means, very improper to attribute to Christ and his immediate disciples so low and vile an origin; that, if Pagans, who sometimes come through motives of curiosity to their religious assemblies, heard such accounts about our religion, this would only serve to increase their contempt and hatred for it, &c. &c.; and, finally, they advised me, if in future I had occasion to mention in my sermons the origin of Christ and his Apostles, not to fail to say that they were born in the noble tribe of Chatrys or Rajahs, and never to make mention of their low professions.

Another instance of this kind happened to me in Mysore, some years ago, when, on explaining to the congregation the parable of the Prodigal, in the Gospel, (Luke xv.) I mentioned the circumstance of the Prodigal's father, on the coming back of his converted son, having through joy killed a fattened calf, to entertain his friends. After the lecture, the Christians said to me, rather in bad humour, that my mentioning the fattened calf was very improper; and that, if Pagans had, as it oftentimes happened, been present at the lecture, they would have been highly scandalised, and confirmed, on hearing of the fattened calf, in the opinion they entertained of our religion being a pariah religion. At the same time, they advised me, if in future I gave an explanation of the same parable, to substitute a lamb in the place of the fattened calf.

In fact, even with our Christian Natives, we are compelled to avoid in this respect all that is calculated to offend their feelings, and increase in the public the jealousy and hatred entertained against them and their religion. Thus, for example, as the use of intoxicating liquors is extremely odious to all well-educated Indians, and considered by them as one of their capital sins, when we explain verbally, or by writing, in our catechisms, the sacrament of the Eucharist, we are cautious not to say openly that the matter of the Sacrament is bread and wine, or *charayom*: this last word would prove too revolting to their feelings. We have, therefore, been obliged to soften it by a periphrase; saying that the matter of the Eucharist is bread of wheat, and the juice of the fine fruit called grape, which expressions become more palatable to the extremely delicate Indian taste.

In the mean while, should a translation of the Bible into the several dialects of the country, circulated among the Natives; be able, as some persons think, through its intrinsic worth, to produce its effects, and fix their attention on this Divine book—even in this case, which I am far from admitting, an almost insurmountable difficulty would still remain; that is, a proper translation of the work—for the idiom and style of the Indian languages are so widely different from those of European tongues, that a literal translation would, in my opinion, prove perfect nonsense.

I was not a little astonished when I saw, a few years ago, announced, with much emphasis, in the newspapers, by the Missionaries at Serampore, a design of having the whole of our Holy Scriptures thoroughly translated into fourteen or fifteen Asiatic languages, the Chinese not excepted. To persons who know nothing of the difficulty, not to say impossibility, of such an undertaking, the project is likely to appear noble and dazzling. As for me, at the very first sight, I considered it as mere quackery, and could not conceive how a small society of five or six individuals could seriously think of undertaking such an Herculean labour, which, if fairly carried

one would occupy, for at least a century, all the learned to be found in Asia.

It is a well-known fact, that, when England separated herself from the Church of Rome, not finding the *Vulgate* version of the Bible, till then used, exact enough, and wishing to have a more perfect translation made from the Hebrew Original, this translation took a period of eighteen years to be performed, and yet modern criticism has discovered a great number of errors in this English translation. Now, if, even in Europe, with all the assistance that able and learned translators were enabled to obtain in every respect from an enlightened body of scholars, it proved so difficult, and required such long labour to go through a genuine translation of the work, what are we to think of the project of five or six individuals, however enlightened they may be; who, without the assistance of any criticism whatever, dare boast of then being able to get literal translations of the same work done into intricate idioms, with which they have only a very imperfect acquaintance?

It is admitted, that, in order to make a genuine translation from one language into another, it is indispensably necessary to possess a thorough grammatical acquaintance with both. Now, where are the Europeans who possess such a perfect and thoroughly grammatical acquaintance with the Asiatic tongues? Or where are to be found the Indians who possess the same advantage with respect to European languages? If persons of this description are to be found any where in India, they are very rare indeed.

Some translations of a part of the Holy Scriptures are to be seen in the country; but, in my humble opinion, they have entirely missed their object. I have by me a translation of the New Testament into Tamul, executed by the Lutheran Missionaries; but the translators, by endeavouring to make it literal, have used such low, trivial, and, in many places, such ludicrous expressions, and the style is, besides, so widely different from that used by Indians, that the persons unaccustomed to it cannot, as I had repeated opportunities of seeing, read over ten lines without laughing at the manner in which the work is executed.

In my last stay on the coast, I had occasion to see a letter on the subject, from a missionary in Travancore, to a person of the same profession at Pondicherry, in which were the following expressions: 'Two thousand sets of the New Testament, translated into the Malayan dialect, have been sent to us, without our asking for them, to be circulated among our Christians. I have perused the work; the translation is truly piteous: one cannot read over four verses without shrugging. At the same time, this large collection of New Testaments now in our hands puts us in a very awkward situation. If we leave them to rot in the houses, we

shall expose ourselves to the displeasure of Government, who appear anxious to have the work circulated among the Christians; on the other hand, if we have them circulated, we shall cover ourselves with ridicule, &c. &c.

I recollect an instance of this kind, which will not, perhaps, appear foreign to my subject. About twenty-five years ago, the French Missionaries, in the Province of Satchuen, in China, were earnestly requested by the Holy See, at Rome to translate the New Testament into Chinese. The Missionaries answered that, as the Chinese language did not admit of a literal translation, they had, a long time before, compiled a work in a Chinese style, for the use of their congregations, containing both the history and moral of the Gospel, and that nothing more could be satisfactorily executed on the subject. However, as the request had been very urgent, they got, with the assistance of many well-informed converts, a Chinese translation of the Gospel of St. Matthew; a copy of which they sent to Europe, premising, at the same time, that this literal translation, which had cost them very great labour, differed so widely from the Chinese style, that their converts could hardly repress their laughter on perusing it.

Now it is curious enough to see, that, what European Missionaries, who had passed their lives in China, found nearly impossible to perform, even with the assistance of many well-informed Natives, an unassisted Armenian, at Serampore, boasts to be able to execute; and it is not the translation of one of the four Gospels he has undertaken—the whole Bible, literally translated into Chinese by this Armenian, has been emphatically promised by the Missionaries at Serampore, to gratify the curiosity of the public.

I had occasion, at several times, to converse with many unprejudiced, and unbiassed, well-informed Europeans, acquainted with the languages of the Peninsula, who had an opportunity of perusing some of the partial translations of the Bible, now extant in the country: Their opinion upon the subject perfectly agreed with mine; and they appeared persuaded that so imperfect, low, and vulgar a version of our Holy Scriptures, ought to be carefully concealed from the sight of Pagan Hindoos, in order not to increase their prejudices against Christianity.

In fact, a translation of our holy books, in order to awaken the curiosity and fix the attention of Indians, at least as a literary production, ought to be on a level with the performances of the same kind among them, and be composed in good poetry, a polished style, and a high strain of eloquence; this being the only mode in which all the Indian productions of the same nature are performed. But, so long as the translations of the Bible are executed in the low pariah style in which we find those now extant, you may rest persuaded that they will only excite contempt, and serve only to increase the prejudices and aversion of the Natives against the Chris-

tian religion, and those who profess it. But, to conclude: I would, as many as you please, in every shape and style, be translated, and circulated among the Natives; let them, if you will, be spread in every village, in every cottage, in every family; let the Christian religion be presented to Indians under every possible light. In my humble opinion (an opinion formed by twenty-four years of experience) the time of conversion, I repeat, has passed away, and, in the present circumstances, there is no human possibility of bringing it back. The Christian religion has been announced to these people, during the past three centuries, at the commencement, with some hopes of success, but now to no purpose.

In the mean while, the oracle of the Gospel has been fulfilled with respect to Indians; (for the Divine Founder of the Christian religion has, it is true, promised that his Gospel should be preached over all the world,) but, to the best of my knowledge, he has nowhere promised that it should be heard, believed, embraced, by all nations.

As a most sincere and undisguised believer of the Divine origin of this religion, and as firmly persuaded that this alone can make man happy in this life and in that to come, my most ardent wishes have always been, and are still, to see it believed and followed by all mankind, and its dominion extended over all the world. It was to co-operate in this noble purpose that I came to this country, animated, at the outset, by a most eager spirit of proselytism; but I had hardly made a stay of two years in it, when, becoming acquainted with the insurmountable obstacles to be met with in the deeply-rooted prejudices of the Natives against the Christian religion, my religious zeal was entirely damped, and I had ample room to repent of the choice of the profession I am still exercising.

Unfortunately, I am not the only one in this sad predicament; and, among a great number of Missionaries with whom I was acquainted, there was none who did not experience the same disappointment with me, and who did not heartily repent of having embraced a profession in all respects so unprofitable; and there was also not one who, had he remained in his own country, would not, with less labour and trouble, have reaped more abundant fruits in his professional pursuits among his countrymen. However, as they all came to this country with disinterested views, none, among those I was acquainted with, ever entertained a thought of returning home: they chose rather to persevere in the disgusting and unprofitable labour they had embraced, and to bear with patience the contradictions and other hardships to which they were exposed; persuaded that, after embracing such a profession through pure motives, their duty was to persevere in it to the end, and submit to God's will, who could never make them accountable for successes it was by no means in their power to procure.

Some persons seem to think that, should the civil Government give a proper support and encouragement to the Christian religion,

she could come out of the state of contempt and subjection in which it is everywhere held. In my humble opinion, this might have been the case in former times; but, in the present circumstances, when the prejudices of Natives have reached such a height, I question whether ever all the support and encouragement practicable on the part of the Government could materially advance its interests, and would not rather increase the prejudices against it.

Many people appear to entertain the opinion, that the intercourse of Europeans with Natives ought, sooner or later, to bring about a revolution in the religion and manners of the latter; but, in order to produce such an effect, this intercourse ought to become more close, more familiar and intimate, than it has ever been. In my opinion, Natives will be the same, in this respect, after a thousand years, as they are now, and as they were a thousand years since. Their distance from Europeans will always continue the same, and abhorrence for their religion, their education, and manners, as well as their prejudices, will be preserved unimpaired.

At the same time, if the general intercourse between the individuals of both nations were to become more intimate, a revolution might indeed, by little and little, be operated through this means in the religion and manners of the Hindoos. It would not be to become converts to Christianity, that they would forsake their actual religion, but rather (what is a thousand times worse than idolatry) to become perfect atheists; and, if they renounce their manners and education, it will not be to embrace those of Europeans, but rather to become what are now pariahs. Such would be, in my humble opinion, the sad results of such a revolution, if it ever took place.

Of this I was a witness, five or six years ago: a Brahmin, a well-informed man, fluently speaking and writing all the idioms of the Peninsula, was driven out of his caste for drunkenness' sake. This out-lawed man, being so left without resources, applied himself to a French Missionary, a friend of mine, living then in the Jagghire, to become a Christian convert. My friend, not knowing his character, but finding him a man of talent, had him baptised; and, two or three months after his baptism, he sent him to me, to Seringapatam, strongly recommending him to me as a man who could render the greatest services to the cause of religion. I received him affably, and afforded him the assistance in my power. Some days after his arrival, he was several times surprised by the other Christians, in a state of intoxication; and I was informed, that all the money I gave him to live upon was spent in spirituous liquors. As this man proved a scandal to the whole congregation, I sent him back to the Coast; however, through pity, recommended him to a Christian merchant, living at Carrical, warning him, at the same time, of his vice, and exhorting him to endeavour to correct him. That merchant, according to my recommendation, took him into his service, to keep

were, and in others in which they were not applied, we arrive at the inevitable conclusion that these restrictions invariably increase sickness and mortality.

In the four epidemics mentioned, the first considerable increase of mortality took place early in July, and the first sensible decrease in August or September.

In 1592, the number of deaths, in the first week in July, was 1440; in 1603, 445; in 1625, 1222; and in 1665, 1006; being, in 1592, greater than in the same period of 1603, by 995; of 1625, by 218; and of 1665, by 434.

In 1592, the greatest weekly mortality was 1550, on the 11th of August; in 1603, 3385, on the 1st of September; in 1625, 5205, on the 18th of August; and in 1665, 8297, on the 19th of September. In the three latter epidemics, the Quarantine Laws were, at those periods, in application.

In 1592, the deaths from plague were to the deaths from all other diseases, as 11,503 to 14,383; in 1603, as 30,561 to 6,633; in 1625, as 35,403 to 16,355; and in 1665, as 68,596 to 28,710.

Thus, in 1592, the deaths from plague were not quite so numerous as the deaths from all other diseases; whilst, in 1603, they were nearly five times as numerous; in 1625, more than twice as numerous; and in 1665, nearly three times as numerous.

That of 1592 was, at its commencement, a much more fatal plague than any of the others mentioned, but was, in its ultimate issue, much less destructive, both positively, and relatively to the mortality from all other diseases. The Quarantine Laws, not having then been introduced into England, were not applied.

The pestilences of 1608, 1625, and 1665, were, at their commencement, much less severe, as we have seen, than that of 1592, but at their termination, more destructive, in the ratio of three, three and a half, and six and a half, to one, and in the proportions, relatively to the mortality from all other diseases, of five, two, and three, to one. The Quarantine Laws, first introduced in 1603, were enforced in all these pestilences, as rigorously as they ever are, or can be applied.

The excess of mortality, in those pestilences, in which the Quarantine Laws were applied, over that in which they were not applied, was, in 1603, 11,408; in 1625, 25,872; in 1665, 71,420; forming a total of 108,700 deaths, attributable, my conclusions being correct, principally to the operation of the Quarantine Laws, in these three pestilences.

The cause assigned for this excess being presumed to be the true one, if these laws had been applied in the epidemic of 1592, the mortality, according to the rate of 1603, calculating upon that of the first week in July, would be 129,520; according to the rate of 1625, 60,480; according to the rate of 1665, 138,240; and according to the average of these three rates, 109,413; whereas

the actual mortality of the epidemic of 1592, in the absence of the Quarantine Laws, was only 25,886, being less than one-fourth of that average. From these data it is reasonable to conclude, that, in pestilences, sickness and mortality are increased, by the operation of the Quarantine Laws, at least four-fold.

The epidemic of 1592, although destructive in its commencement, was more equable in its progress, earlier in its abatement, and ultimately much less fatal than any of the other three pestilences. The comparative mortality in the first week of July has been already stated. From that period to its incipient decline, on the 11th of August, the mortality was steady at about 1500 weekly, a few under or over. It dates its first abatement from the 11th of August, that of 1603 from the 1st of September, that of 1625 from the 18th of August, and that of 1665 from the 19th of September.

In 1592, the week of the most considerable abatement was that from the 8th to the 15th of September, when the deaths diminished by 600, or one half. The Quarantine Laws were not in operation at any period of this pestilence.

In 1603, the week of the most considerable abatement was that from the 15th to the 22nd of September, when the deaths diminished by 673. But this pestilence continued in force till the week ending the 20th of October, when the mortality diminished by 546. The Quarantine Laws were applied for the first time in England, and continued throughout the malady.

In 1625, the most considerable abatement of mortality happened in the week ending the 1st of September, the diminution being 944, and the following week 740. In the beginning of September, the houses were allowed to be opened.

In 1665, the greatest abatement happened on the 26th of September and the 24th of October; viz. 1,837 at the first, and 1,413 at the second period. These events happened after the Quarantine regulations were abandoned in despair, and free communication took place among the people.

The injurious operation of the Quarantine Laws was particularly striking in the plague of 1665. There were three remarkable periods of that disease. The first from November, 1664, to June, 1665; during which time, there being no Quarantine restrictions employed, the malady made but a slow and inconsiderable progress. The second from the beginning of July to the 19th of September, during which period, the Sanitary Laws being enforced with as much vigour as they ever admit of, the disease continued to spread with a rapid, decided, and appalling progress. The weekly mortality increased by thousands: on the 25th of July, for instance, the increase of deaths over those of the preceding week was 1,024; on the 8th of August, 1,030; on the 15th, 1,289; and on the 29th, 1,908. From the commencement of the operation of the Sanitary Laws, in the beginning of July, to their discontinuance about the

19th of September, the weekly mortality increased from 1,000 to 8,297, making a difference of 7,291. During the eleven weeks that these restrictions were in operation, there perished of all diseases, 55,446; giving, if we deduct 300 per week as the average of ordinary mortality, 52,146 deaths from plague; of which, without exaggeration, 40,000 may be attributed to the joint influence of the terror inspired by the belief in contagion, and of the operation of the Quarantine Laws.

The third period includes from the 19th of September to the termination of the epidemic. At the former date, when sickness and mortality were at the highest, the shutting up of houses, and other Sanitary regulations, were abandoned as fruitless, nothing being looked for but universal desolation. From that moment, the mortality diminished with a rapidity proportioned to that with which it had previously increased during their operation. The weekly decrease, on the 26th of September, was 1,837; on the 17th of October, 1,743; and on the 24th, 1,413. From the discontinuance of the Sanitary regulations, about the 19th of September, to the 14th of November, being eight weeks, the weekly mortality diminished from 8,297 to 905, making a difference of 7,392. Thus, in eleven weeks, during which the Quarantine Laws were enforced, there was an increased weekly mortality of 7,291; and, in eight weeks, during which they were discontinued, a decreased weekly mortality of 7,392. This appears to me to afford a double demonstration of their injurious effects.

Such phenomena are by no means peculiar to the plagues of London, but will be found to be common to all the considerable epidemics, in which the Sanitary Laws have been employed, and of which authentic histories have been preserved, as those of Marseilles in 1720, of Moscow in 1771, and of Messina, Naples, Noya, Cadiz, Barcelona, Tortosa, Palma, Malta, and Gibraltar, at various periods. Of these it is sufficient for my present purpose to advert to a few of the most important, particularly the great plagues of Marseilles and Moscow.

In Marseilles, in 1720, sickness and mortality kept regularly increasing, from early in July to late in September, the Sanitary Laws being in full operation. Previous to the middle of September, there was even question of burning the city. During a month of that period, the average deaths exceeded a thousand a day. It was when the mortality was at the height, when all precautions were abandoned in despair, when the shops were opened for the supply of the public, and when religious processions were resorted to, by which the people were brought together in masses, that the pestilence began immediately to abate, continuing regularly to decrease until its final cessation.

In Moscow, in 1771, the usual Sanitary precautions being established, mortality continued regularly to increase from 200 daily towards the end of July, to 400 by the middle of August, to 600

towards the end of the same month, to 700 at the beginning of September, a few days afterwards to 800, and successively to a thousand. On the evening of the 5th of September, the people rose, broke open the hospitals, put an end to the Quarantine restrictions, and restored the religious ceremonies used for the sick. The Quarantine restrictions were not re-imposed; and the ravages of the pestilence abated with as much rapidity, as they had previously increased, under their operation.

Thus, in all the great pestilences mentioned, (and the facts are of general application,) sickness and mortality, during the operation of the Quarantine Laws, rapidly increased, and, upon their abandonment, as rapidly diminished. In that of London, in 1603, in which those restrictions were employed throughout, the sickness continued longer than in those of 1625, and 1665, when they were discontinued at the height of the disease. From these facts we are entitled to conclude, that, in the former case, when the malady declined and ceased, it was in defiance of these restrictions.

In Casal Curmi, in Malta, in 1813, *'the inhabitants being cordoned round, walled in, and even locked within their respective dwellings,'* the sickness continued with the utmost severity for several months after it had ceased in all other parts of the island, and until the inhabitants had almost all perished.

In Noya, in Italy, a pestilence was prolonged in 1815, for upwards of twelve months, under the strictest operation of the Quarantine Laws.

Seeing that the effects of the operation of the Quarantine Laws, in the months of July, August, and September, have been invariably to increase the ravages of pestilence, to believe that, in other months of the year, they would produce contrary effects, by preventing the commencement, arresting the progress, or mitigating the severity of these calamities, would be absurd and irrational in no ordinary degree. Accordingly, the facts are found to be notoriously otherwise.

In Gibraltar, for instance, in 1813, although the place had been, for several months previously, in strict Quarantine, and a board of health was almost daily sitting, on account of the plague of Malta, the fever commenced at the usual epidemic season, and observed the usual course.

At Barceloneta, in 1821, in *seven days* from the period of imposing the Sanitary restrictions, the daily mortality increased precisely *eighteen-fold*.

At Barcelona, in the same year, the sickness and mortality kept regularly and rapidly increasing, under the operation of the Quarantine Laws, until they attained their highest degree. At length, the people, disbelieving, from the evidence of their proper senses, the alleged utility of these restrictions, began to manifest unequivocal symptoms of insubordination; upon which, the matter threatening to become serious, the precautions were abandoned, and the

disease abated, and ceased at the usual time, and in the usual manner.

In Tortosa, in Spain, in 1821, upon the rumour of the breaking out of the yellow fever in Barcelona, the Sanitary Laws being imposed with unusual rigour, several weeks before any case of pestilence occurred in that city, the disease raged with almost unprecedented severity, even to the depopulation of the place.

It appears generally, from the evidence of history, that those pestilences, in which the Sanitary Laws have been applied, have been much more destructive than those which had afflicted the same cities, previous to their use.

It is also in evidence, that, during pestilences, the multitude, instead of manifesting prejudices in favour of Sanitary Laws, have frequently shown themselves exceedingly hostile to these restrictions.

All these observations apply to yellow fever, and other epidemics, as well as to the plague of the Levant.

The following tables of mortality, on which I have grounded some part of my reasoning, are taken from Bradley's work on the Plague of Marseilles: London, 1721.

A Table, showing how many died weekly, as well of all diseases, as of the Plague, in the years 1502, 1603, 1625, 1665.

BURIED IN THE YEAR 1592.						BURIED IN THE YEAR 1603.					
	Total	Pla.		Total	Pla.		Total	Pla.		Total	Pla.
Mar. 17	230	3	Aug. 11	1550	797	Mar. 17	108	3	July 21	1186	917
24	351	31	18	1532	651	24	60	2	28	1728	1396
31	219	29	25	1508	449	31	78	6	Aug. 4	2256	1922
April 7	307	27	Sept. 1	1490	507	April 7	66	4	11	2077	1745
14	203	33	8	1210	563	14	79	4	18	3054	2713
21	290	37	15	621	451	21	98	8	25	2853	2539
28	310	41	22	629	349	28	109	10	Sept. 1	3385	3035
May 5	350	29	29	450	330	May 5	90	11	8	3078	2724
12	339	38	Oct. 6	408	327	12	112	18	15	3129	2818
19	300	42	13	522	323	19	122	22	22	2456	2195
26	450	58	20	330	308	26	122	32	29	1961	1732
June 2	410	62	27	320	302	June 2	114	30	Oct. 6	1831	1641
9	441	81	Nov. 3	310	301	9	131	43	13	1312	1149
16	399	99	10	309	209	16	144	59	20	766	642
23	501	108	17	301	107	23	182	72	27	625	508
30	850	*118	24	321	93	30	267	158	Nov. 3	737	594
July 7	1440	927	Dec. 1	349	94	July 7	445	263	10	545	442
14	1510	893	8	331	86	14	612	424	17	384	251
21	1491	+258	15	329	71				24	198	105
28	1507	852	22	386	39				Dec. 1	223	102
Aug. 4	1503	983							8	163	55
									15	200	96
									22	168	74
The total this year is..... 25886						The total this year is..... 37294					
Whereof of the Plague..... 11503						Whereof of the Plague..... 30561					

* This number is too small by 400 or 500. It is obviously a mistake, from its disproportion with the preceding column.

† The figures are here evidently misplaced. It should be either 852 or 825. This would bring the proportion right.

‡ The out parishes this week were joined with the City.

BURIED IN THE YEAR 1863.						BURIED IN THE YEAR 1864.					
	Total	Pla.		Total	Pla.		Total	Pla.		Total	Pla.
Mar. 17	262	4	Aug. 11	4855	4115	Dec. 27	291	1	June 13	558	112
24	226	8	18	5205	4463	Jan. 3	349		20	617	168
31	243	11	25	4841	4218	10	394		27	684	266
April 7	239	10	Sept. 1	3897	3344	17	415		July 4	1096	479
14	256	24	8	3152	2550	24	474		11	1268	725
21	230	25	15	2148	1612	31	409		18	1761	1089
28	305	26	22	1994	1551	Feb. 7	393		25	2788	1845
May 5	292	30	29	1236	852	14	461	1	Aug. 1	3014	2010
12	232	45	Oct. 6	833	538	21	393		8	4030	2817
19	379	71	13	815	511	28	396		15	5319	3880
26	401	78	20	651	331	Mar. 7	441		22	5568	4227
June 2	395	69	27	375	134	14	433		29	7496	6102
9	434	91	Nov. 3	257	89	21	365		Sept. 5	8252	6978
16	510	161	10	319	92	28	353		12	7690	6544
23	640	239	17	274	48	April 4	344		19	8297	7165
30	942	390	24	231	27	11	382		26	6460	5533
July 7	1222	593	Dec. 1	190	15	18	344		Oct. 3	5720	4929
14	1781	1004	8	181	15	25	390	2	10	5068	4227
21	2850	1819	15	168	6	May 2	388		17	3225	2665
28	3583	2471	22	157	1	9	347	9	24	1812	1300
Aug. 4	4517	3659				16	353	3	31	1000	600
The total this year is..... 51758						23	385	14	Nov. 7	1400	900
Whereof of the Plague..... 35403						30	399	17	14	805	550
						June 6	405	43			
						The total this year is..... 97800					
						Whereof of the Plague..... 68596					

THE VOLUPTUARY.

THROUGH the hot paths of pleasure's flowery maze

He wander'd long and wantonly; he deem'd

The scene should aye be fair as then it seem'd;

That in the light of beauty's witching gaze

He should rejoice for ever; that he'd quaff

Undying bliss; that paradise was earth:

Yet the proud longings of a loftier birth

At length were stirr'd within him; and the chaff,

The very dregs of joy did but remain:

Then Wisdom's wonders he would fain behold,

And noble Science—they would not unfold:

To him their treasures: when he found 'twas vain,

Again the once bright scene the votary view'd—

In horrid gloom the black perspective stood.

THE WRECK.

WITH a favourable breeze, the *Hercules* quitted the Madras roads to complete her voyage from Europe to Calcutta.

The shadows of evening had given place to the deep gloom of a tropical night; and the spacious decks, deserted by their late numerous and joyous occupants, were tenanted only by the wakeful officers of the watch, and groups of weary and slumbering seamen. A solemn stillness prevailed throughout the ship; the monsoon blew in one continued current of gentleness, scarcely creating a ripple on the bosom of the ocean; and the deep blue sky above, gemmed with innumerable stars, with their cold and sparkling lustre, shed over the face of nature that uncertain and mysterious twilight which imparts so soothing a calm to the wearied and troubled spirit.

It was such a night, the third after our departure from Madras, and yet that balmy breeze bore on its wings destruction and death; and the deceitful sea only awaited the call of the infuriate winds to wreak upon our devoted ship, and her hapless crew, its blind and frantic vengeance!

A harsh grating—proceeding, as it seemed to me, from the deck beneath, accompanied by a quivering running throughout the ship—awoke me. A feeling I cannot explain, though I felt no clear idea of danger, induced me to quit my hammock, and to spring up the main-hatchway to the quarter-deck. It was pitchy-dark, and the waves were hurrying wildly and confusedly past the ship's sides. As yet a mere novice in nautical matters, I found my way to the fore-castle, among a group who were anxiously gazing at the sea a-head. All I could distinguish was the sullen boom of the waves, and a long streak of snow-white foam on the otherwise dark sea. The experienced eyes of those around me beheld in that white foam the maddened breakers dashing on an extensive reef!

I know not how it was, and I have since thought of it with wonder, that, with imminent danger thus staring them in the face, the energy, the very spirit, of the people seemed frozen up! As yet, the vessel had only struck faintly, and had again got into deep water; but she still journeyed on her career of destruction, while those on board stood gazing on the danger in stupid dismay, or hurried confusedly about the decks, impeding each other in their vain attempts. One recommended this, another suggested that; and, in the very multitude of counsel, nothing of advantage was adopted. The alarm had not as yet spread throughout the ship; and the second mate, who had the watch, seemed anxious only to avoid arousing the Captain.

All this, though it takes me some time to relate, occupied but the space of a minute. Presently the ship shot suddenly a head, and as suddenly became arrested in her career, with a violence that shook her frightfully in every timber. Now then ensued a scene which baffles description. The cabins of the passengers, the births of the seamen and soldiers, were simultaneously quitted by their occupants; and, naked as they had arisen, they crowded up either hatchway, dismayed and terror-struck. Our commander, a man remarkable for his energy and decision of character, was the first on deck. One silent glance he threw a-head; one aloft at the shaking sails and creaking masts; a third over the side; then muttering to himself, in a strange tone of levity and pain, 'A pretty night's work!' he endeavoured to recal the people to a sense of their duty. Alas! in that hour, even he had lost his influence. In vain he commanded, threatened, and appealed; in vain himself and a courageous few exerted themselves: their weak efforts availed not; and, when again the ship struck, and with the furious concussion started the rudder, which as it rose broke up the gun and upper decks, and the impetuous swell fairly made a breach over them and their affrighted occupants, there broke forth a scream so soul-harrowing and unnatural—its thrilling intensity yet rings in my ears! And a cry, 'The boats, the boats,' became general; and numbers gathered about the captain, who leant against the capstern in silent anguish, watching the work of destruction he could not avert. The chief mate had rendered himself at once an object of fear and respect to the crew and passengers, from his extreme and even morose reserve, and the harsh, imperative tone of his manners. He was a man in the decline of life; and to a tall, fleshless, though sinewy, figure, were united an ashy and withered cheek, eyes stiff and glaring, and thin black lips, curled into an habitual and sullen sneer. He had shown himself on all occasions an admirable seaman; but he studiously avoided all communion with his shipmates, and repulsed, with haughty abruptness, any attempt to elicit his confidence. He had been of the few who fruitlessly attempted to heave the ship aback on the first alarm, and he now stood on the quarter-deck, his long lean arms folded across his broad chest; and savage scorn glowered in his wasted and wrinkled features, as he gazed on the recreant crowd that pressed around the captain. 'Back, back,' he exclaimed, in an authoritative tone, 'your base cowardice has lost the ship; perish then, like dogs as you are!'

Startled by the bitter disdain expressed in his deep, sepulchral tones, the men drew back; and the mate, turning to the Captain, went on in a voice, a fearful contrast to his former impetuosity by its absolute and calm coldness, 'Is nothing to be done? Are the ladies, are we all, to perish without one struggle?'

I was standing near the man at the time. His fearless, and

even lofty carriage; the fiery spirit that appeared to shine out through his worn and shattered frame; our very situation, perhaps by heightening the effect of his singular bearing—together conspired to give him an air of almost resistless authority; and numbers followed his directions, as under the influence of some master spell. An anchor was let go under the bows, in the hopes of staying her progress forward; and preparations were made to hoist out the long-boat, that, by carrying out an anchor astern, an attempt might be made to heave the ship off the reef. By the lead, too, we found that she had struck in comparatively deep water, and on a sandy bottom. The spirit of the mate seemed to have extended to all on board; and passengers, soldiers, and seamen emulated each other in their exertions.

Woman is at best but a forlorn creature at sea; and, in such a season, the conviction of her utter helplessness aggravates the horrors of her situation. I will not attempt to describe the sufferings of those on board, for with shame I confess, that, during the panic that prevailed, they had remained unheeded and uncared for; but now that innate and sacred feeling which prompts man, in the hour of peril, to protect the weak and defenceless of the softer sex, had again assumed its sway in our bosoms, and anxiously did we turn our attention to these unfortunates. Paralysed with terror, they clung with instinctive eagerness to the bosoms of the seamen, who carried them below to the half-deck, whither the water had not yet penetrated. Man is a mysterious being. It seemed scarcely possible that those men whose rugged features now glistened with the divine feelings which warmed their bosoms, as they compassionately tended these drooping creatures, and in nature's homely and eloquent language whispered the accents of comfort and safety, were the same in whom, not an hour since, all sense of manhood and courage was swallowed up in the overwhelming emotions of apathetic terror which encompassed their spirits.

But the wind gradually freshened into a hard gale, and the long heavy surf, momentarily breaking over the wreck, much retarded our efforts to launch the long-boat. Cold, wet, surrounded by darkness and a tremendous sea, deafened by its harsh roar and the fiend-like howlings of the gale, as it whistled among the rigging, or shook and clashed the loose sails with the noise of thunder, the spirits of the men again gradually sunk beneath their discouraging influence.

Still we toiled on, until it seemed as if the powers of darkness and the storm had unitedly poured forth their wrath for our destruction. A momentary lull had given a little impetus to our exertions: the boat, suspended over the side, was gradually being lowered into the water, and two men in her steadied her in her descent. Foremost in the operation was the singular being who had played so important a part in the events of the night. Suddenly dropping

the rope he grasped, he listened in an attitude of deep attention. The pause was momentary: 'Let every one,' he exclaimed in hasty alarm, 'as he values life, hold on.'

The words had scarcely passed from his lips, when a whirlwind blast swept across the ship, in its fury tearing every sail which had hung disregarded to the yards, with a deafening clash, from its bolt-ropes, and carrying away the fore-mast and main-top-mast. Lightning, too, and rain came with it; and the sea, lashed into added fury, dashed over the starboard quarter; in which direction the squall had come, tearing up bulwarks and stanchions; and hencoops and guns, water casks and living men, floated in wild confusion from side to side.

I had instinctively clasped a gun, near which I stood; and, as the sea rushed on board, bearing down the vessel on her larboard side, I just distinguished the rapid clattering of blocks, and the dash of something heavy among the breakers: it was the long boat! Startled at the man's emphatic warning, succeeded as it instantly was by the squall, each had immediately quitted the falls to seek his own safety, and the long-boat, with the two men, precipitately descended into the water. Poor wretches! while yet a similar fate seemed inevitably mine, I felt a mingled feeling of pity and horror at its dreadful consummation. Encumbered by the ropes attached to it and the ship, the long-boat, after dashing for a space among the impetuous surf, furiously rebounded against the main chains, and instantly swamped. But, the men! I heard withering cries, and a quick plashing among the boiling waters, and then gurgling groans; for the violence of the blast had passed away, and given place to a sad and ominous calmness. But this was nought to the fearful spectacle on deck. The fore-mast had fallen over the larboard-side, and two wretches writhed beneath it in helpless agony. On the quarter-deck, too, there was blood and contention; for every one had crowded thither—women, and seamen, and soldiers.

Irritated by the anguish of the injuries they had sustained, rendered reckless by their desperate situation, inflamed, too, by the ardent spirits either party had liberally indulged in, the angry and bitter feelings of man's nature had become aroused; and querulous complainings, and smothered curses, and the scowl of malice, heightened into open and passionate revilings, till at length blow succeeded blow, and the headlong and mortal combat became general; as though the wrath of the elements were not already too much, but that man must seek his enemy in his fellow-sufferer! A dispute had broken out between the seamen and soldiers: bayonets and belaying pins, handspikes and crow-bars; were their formidable weapons. In vain did the more temperate, and, perhaps, the more numerous, portion interfere, to put a stop to the unnatural encounter: the infuriate men dealt their blows blindly and indiscriminately on friend and mediator.

'This is too dreadful,' at length exclaimed the Captain: 'if you are men, desist! Field,' and he seized the raised arm of a man prepared to strike an already prostrate soldier, 'you have sailed with me nearly two years; hitherto I have esteemed you as a man and a sailor; is this your conduct, and on such a night? Look around you, men, on the wild sea and this shattered wreck, and ask yourselves how have you done your duty as men and seamen. Shame, shame!'

He had touched the right chord. The men, who had, one by one, dropped their weapons as he proceeded, overcome with shame, cowered forward to avoid the angry glance of that eye they had been wont to fear and love.

Following up the advantage he had gained, the Captain proceeded: 'Aye, these feelings indeed do you honour. There, there; the mischief that is done cannot now be helped; but let us make all the amends we can. The day will soon break, and the wind has in a great measure subsided; there are two boats yet, and, if the land is near, we shall quickly see it. Poor lambs,' he continued, with deep feeling, as he looked down on the females, who, beneath the united effects of cold, wet, and fear, lay senseless on the deck, 'what can be done for you?'

He raised one in his arms; but the head, with its long tresses, bent lifelessly on her bosom, and her arms dropped down, relaxed, by her side.

'God! they are dead!' uttered he in a tone of horror. We chafed their pale hands and paler temples, and applied all the remedies our ignorance and poor ability suggested; but these weak efforts availed but little. Life was not indeed extinct; but the horrors of the night seemed to have arrested all sense and perception. Motionless, and with closed eyes, they reclined upon our bosoms, a faint sigh or a convulsive emotion of the lips alone betraying existence. There was one among them returning to a mother she had not seen from earliest infancy, but upon whose affectionate heart the image of that mother was stamped with the never-dying intensity of true affection; and the sweet soul wept, and uttered a low, plaintive, and dove-like cry, 'My mother! my mother!'

Convinced that any efforts we could make would be unavailing, until day broke to discover our real situation, sad and anxiously did our miserable party watch the first streaks of silver that heralded its approach.

And day at length beamed!

The decks and bulwarks abaft were already broken up; and the tremulous quivering that ran through every timber, too surely convinced us that the ship's back was broken. The fallen masts and their tangled rigging strewed the waist on the larboard side; and

a poor fellow lay beneath the ponderous foremast fairly crushed by its weight. He was dead; but, by the look of agony his distorted features yet wore, his sufferings had been terrible. Others too had sustained injury; and even those who had escaped bodily hurt were down by fatigue and anxiety, were little capable of exertion.

But there were those on board yet unsubdued, and who now stood forward to excite by their example their dispirited companions in danger. There were the captain, the chief mate, and a military gentleman, returning to his regiment in India. The captain was the first to break the silence that had for some time prevailed, by exclaiming, in a joyful tone, 'The land! the land!'

Instantly, every weary eye was strained in the direction to which he pointed, and an emphatic 'Thank God!' burst from our lips. Yes, it was the land: there it lay right a-head—a long low beach, and stately palms, and a slender pagoda, rose darkly but distinctly in the cold livid light.

The reef on which we had struck appeared to extend nearly two miles from each extreme, and in depth, towards the land, nearly half a mile. The united violence of wind and sea had driven the ship nearly to its centre, and to the sandy yielding nature of the ground alone had we been indebted for our safety. The shore lay considerably distant, at least two leagues, but this was of little moment; if that any boat could live in the tremendous surf, of which there seemed but little hopes.

Yet the attempt must be made. The cutter, a noble boat, and capable of holding at least thirty, was lowered from the larboard quarter. There was an instinctive rush towards her; but it was instantly checked by the impressive appeal of the captain. 'I trust,' he exclaimed, pointing to the ladies, and the injured men, 'that even now you will not forget their helpless situation.'

Nearly two hundred souls stood on that frail and fast-perishing wreck. Already were her decks partially under water, while each succeeding swell further weakened her. This and another smaller were their only apparent means of reaching the shore; yet not one of that number selfishly pressed forward to secure his own safety until he had discharged the divine duties of humanity. Scarcely waiting till the captain had finished, seamen and soldiers together exclaimed, 'We will! we will!'

As many only as she could with safety hold, in addition to the females and the wounded and mutilated, descended into the cutter; and, as the surf receded from the wreck, the ropes that confined her were gradually slackened, and she drifted from along-side. The returning swell overtook her; and, rising on its summit, the boat appeared for an instant to stagger. This was a moment of breathless alarm; but the next she passed the breakers, and a shout of joy

answered by us on board announced her safety, and her drift into smoother water.

The other boat, on examination, was found so much injured, that to trust ourselves in her would have been utter madness. We had no alternative, therefore, but to await the return of the cutter, or assistance from land.

Not long were we kept in suspense. Presently, numerous catamarans surrounded the ship, (merely planks lashed together,) allured perhaps by the hope of plunder; and at length, two Moululu boats, in one of which, the second mate returned from the shore, came alongside.

The crew of the cutter had found an hospitable reception at the house of Mr. T., the Honourable Company's commercial resident, who, on the first intimation of our disaster, had ordered out every boat this remote spot afforded, to our assistance.

All anxiety as to personal safety now completely set at rest, cheerfully did the crew toil all the day through, though not a breath of air tempered the heat of that tropical sun, to snatch from the general wreck a portion of the ship's cargo; and the last lingering rays of his light alone warned them to abandon their labours and the wreck.

As we neared the shore, the mate, in whose boat I chanced to be, turned his gaze seaward. 'The sun has set,' he muttered half aloud, half to himself, 'with a fair promise for the morrow. If the old ship holds together, we shall find work enough in her yet, for some days to come.'

The boats presently entered a sort of channel, the banks of which were, on either side, covered with low jungle, or studded with the lofty and luxuriant foliage of Asiatic forest-trees.

'Why, where the devil are you going, Jones, where do you land?' inquired the mate abruptly. 'Just beyond that bight of land, Sir,' replied the man, pointing to a woody eminence, which jutted into the river or channel: 'a snug place it is too, and the black fellows are very civil;' and the man's voice gradually sunk into a whisper, as though the speaker wondered at his own volubility before his formidable officer.

The boat rounded the point, and the little village of Hantreedee became visible. True it consisted but of some score of mud huts, and a nondescript pagoda in the rudest style of Hindoo architecture; but the pleasant grove behind, and the smooth esplanade in front sloping gradually to the water's edge, together with the tents hastily erected for our accommodation, and the bustle and hum of the seamen and Natives, gave to the scene, at least in my eyes, something infinitely pleasing.

Not a soul was awakened on the wreck, and as it was, appear, our evening's repast on the lawn-like banks of the river, at that remote and almost desolate spot, and under circumstances so painful, was to me one of peculiar enjoyment. Our ship and ill-assorted viands, too, were in admirable keeping. The contents of hams, hastily boiled, an immense cheese, bread from a cask with the head driven in, and wine, beer, and spirits, *ad libitum*. The evening was beautiful. A faint and balmy air rustled among the trees, and with the distant and solemn boom of the sea, none broke on the perfect stillness of nature: the features of the land were becoming indistinct and shadowy in the gathering gloom; while seaward, a broad mass of dense clouds, edged with radiant crimson, and surmounted by clouds of feathery light, yet lingered in the distant west, and the smooth oily-looking sea caught, from their mingled 'gloom and glory,' a solemn and tempered light.

It will easily be supposed that, after the fatigues of the day, we were not long in seeking refreshment in sleep, and that our slumbers were of the soundest description.

A little before sunrise, however, the rain, penetrating through the thin canvas of the tent, awoke us. One of those sudden changes of the weather, so frequent in the Indian Seas, previous to the setting in of the S.W. monsoon, had taken place.

The wind blew with terrific violence, accompanied with thunder and torrentlike rain, which at intervals, in squalls perhaps of half an hour's duration, continued the whole of the day.

To attempt to board the wreck in such weather, would have been certain destruction; and the dense mist that floated on the surface of the water, rendering objects undiscernible at twenty yards distant, greatly heightened the peril of the attempt. Occasional gleams of brightness in the atmosphere, indeed, discovered to us a black and shapeless mass, now visible above, the next instant, ingulphed amidst the furious breakers; but by night-fall the beach was completely strewn with fragments of the wreck.

There is little else to relate. Gradually the ship broke up; and by the period the crew quitted the place, (sixteen days from the morning of our disaster,) hardly a vestige of her remained visible on the reef.

It is scarcely necessary to dwell at length as to how we occupied ourselves during this interval. Mr. T. by every assistance in his power, rendered our situation as little irksome as possible; and to his kindness were we indebted for our speedy departure for Calcutta, he having despatched a messenger over land to Mausulipatam, to hire a Native Brig for our accommodation, in which we happily reached Bengal, without experiencing any further casualties.

STANZAS FOR MUSIC.

By Robert Montgomery. (Not published.)

Oh ! Beauty is the master-charm,
The Syren of the soul ;
Whose magic zone encompasseth
Creation with control !
The love and light of human kind,
The foster-flame of every mind.

'Twas Beauty hung the blue-robed heavens !
She glitters in each star ;
Or trippeth on the twilight breeze,
In melody afar !

She danceth on the dimpled stream,
And gambols in the ripple's gleam !
She couches on the coral wave,
And garlandeth the sea ;
And weaves a music in the wind
That murmurs from the lea ;
She paints the clouds, and points the ray,
And basketh in the blush of day !

She sits among the spangled trees,
And streaks the bud and flower ;
She dims the air and drops the dew
Upon the glade and bower !
'Tis she unwreathes the wings of night,
And cradles Nature in delight.

And woman !—Beauty was the power
That, with angelic grace,
Breathed love around her glowing form,
And magic in her face !
She crisp'd the silky-flashing hair,
And framed her throne, her forehead fair !

She arm'd her liquid-rolling eye
With fairy darts of fire :
She wreath'd the lip of luscious hue,
And bade its breath inspire !
She shaped her for her queenly shrine,
And made her like herself—divine !

Oh ! Beauty is the master-charm,
The Syren of the soul ;
Whose magic zone encompasseth
Creation with control !
The love and light of human kind,
The foster-flame of every mind.

COMMERCIAL RESEARCHES AND LABOURS OF M. CESAR MOREAU.

To retrace the origin of our trade; to record the rise and progress of each of its multifarious branches; to bring them forth, as it were, from the dusty scrolls of libraries, and exhibit thus the whole commercial system of the British Empire in an attainable and luminous array,—has been the object of the many works which M. Moreau has undertaken with a spirit, and persevered in with a zeal and a correctness, that reflect on him the highest credit. We have frequently had occasion to speak of this gentleman's merits and qualifications for the peculiar studies to which he has devoted the greater part of his life; and we have now the gratification to see that these merits are as fully appreciated by his own countrymen, as they have been by ourselves. The following testimony, from a recent French work published in this metropolis, will bear out our assertions:—

‘The “*Examen du Commerce de la Grande Bretagne*,” is the twelfth production with which the indefatigable pen of M. Moreau has enriched the cabinet of the statesman, the counting-house of the merchant, and the library of every man who wishes to explain, by an investigation of facts, the long-inexplicable phenomenon of the commercial grandeur of Great Britain. If we deem commerce, its development, its action, and its re-action, as the real arteries which carry life through that vast political body, with the same truth may we say that no writings have described the nature and conditions of its existence in a more lucid or more mathematically exact manner than the tables of M. Moreau. This method of reasoning on the highest questions of social order, and of rescuing them in some measure from the vagueness of theory, to subject them to the logic of positive calculation, constitutes a genius entirely new in the domains of political science. The labours of M. Moreau belong to no school-system or party; he is at once their originator and their model; and, if he himself may be supposed to be astonished at any thing connected with them, he must, without doubt, be so at the general utility and perfect success, which have been the fruits of a conception so simple, in an age when the merit of intellectual labours is not unfrequently made dependant on the complexity in which they are involved. The idea once discovered, M. Moreau had only to work it out by persevering diligence and patience inexhaustible; but, though no great effort of genius was connected with that diligence and that patience, it must be conceded that the primary conception carries with it a character of reflection and of justness which distinguishes it as one of the most remarkable in the present age. Arriving in England at a moment when peace had just dissipated the shades which had concealed the real situation

of this country from the eyes of Europe. M. Moreau deemed it necessary to resolve two most important questions, then generally discussed; namely, 1. Were the commerce and manufactures of Great Britain, in reality, as prodigious as they were represented? 2. What were the true causes of such a prodigy, if it existed—the nature of its solidity, and the conditions of its existence? Such were the thoughts that originated the undertaking of M. Moreau; but how were the means of solving this two-fold problem to be obtained? Had he inquired of the multitude of English writers who had treated on this subject, he would have found in them nothing but a perpetual conflict of contradictory opinions, marked not by the impress of truth by those of the opposing parties which have at all times divided Great Britain. One set would have held out a picture of exaggerated prosperity, and another of imaginary decline. If he had recourse to the information furnished by Government, there would have been exhibited the movements of the national prosperity, not as they had taken place, but as the politics of the Cabinet wished them to appear in the eyes of Europe. Lastly, had he examined foreign writers, he would have found nothing but the echo of the idle dreams and prejudices, worse than childish, of which the commercial and political organisation of this Empire has been the subject. What course then did M. Moreau pursue to get at the truth, amidst the numerous errors that surrounded his subject? He neither rejected nor admitted exclusively any of the elements of conviction which we have mentioned; he invoked the whole, not to borrow from them their speculative opinions, but to extract from them the few facts which they contained; and, submitting afterwards this numeric harvest to the most exact of existing tests in such matters, namely, Parliamentary documents, he has succeeded in presenting to the world a Table more nearly approaching to absolute truth, than any statement ever published on the state of each of the branches of the commercial and manufacturing organisation of Great Britain, considered in the separate relations of its internal and external policy.

The execution of this enterprise would have been absolutely impossible any where else than in England; and even there it must have encountered numberless difficulties. In order to realise it, nothing was wanting but that perfect freedom of investigation, the result of the constitutional system which for so many ages has governed this country, and has brought to light so many truths which, had it not been for it, would have remained buried in the records of the administration. But the having so deeply known all the resources of a representative government as to be able to make the most advantageous use of them in a foreign land, and in the bosom of a susceptible and unexpensive nation, is not among the least of the titles which M. Moreau possesses to the public gratitude. Be that as it may, it is by these means that M. Moreau engaged himself in the career, as new as it was difficult, through

which he has run with so much success; and, as if every thing should be unusual in his productions, he has proceeded directly opposite to received methods; that is to say, he has not made details from the whole of his subject, but, on the contrary, has grasped the whole, descending afterwards to details; and, indeed, the best means of interesting the public in so vast a labour, was, probably, to surprise their attention by the delineation of all its extent.

The view of the commerce of Great Britain with all parts of the world, from 1797 to 1824 inclusive, was well calculated to produce such an effect. Never before had so many facts been exposed and accounted for in so small a compass. It is the panorama of the British History, during an age the most fruitful in events of every kind, the most rich in political inferences.

The records of the East India Company, considered relatively to the revenues, expenses, debts, commerce and navigation from 1600 to 1827, from a work of immense extent and importance, at a time in which not only the political existence of 100 millions of men is about to be brought forward before the British Parliament, but when the whole of the Colonial system itself is a subject of general controversy.

The work on the origin and rise of the silk trade is of a more special interest to France than to England; and the epoch in which it was published gives it a peculiar merit which it will long preserve.

British Industry, studied in its exportations, is, of all the works which have been brought forward for a long while, the best calculated to dispel the illusions which the outward view of this industry has created in the minds of foreigners, and well calculated also to animate them with a noble emulation.

In his work on the Royal and Commercial Navy of Great Britain, M. Moreau has succeeded in connecting considerations of the wisest policy with the material interests of a mercantile navigation. The statistical picture of Ireland is of the highest importance at a time in which this valuable appendage of the British Empire causes such well-founded solicitude.

Lastly, the table comparing the commerce of France with all parts of the world, before the Revolution and since the Restoration; the statistical examination of this kingdom in 1827; and the work which has served as a text to this article,—concur in proving, that the scrutinizing genius of M. Moreau is equal to the most important tasks; and promises to France a man the most capable of appreciating and of defending the true interests of her commerce and her industry.

If all England has been unable to refuse M. Moreau the homage of her admiration for the secrets which he has revealed to her, and the stroke which he has thrown on every branch of her com-

perity; if every English newspaper has marked him as the economist who was best able to unravel every thread of his system; if all parties have made use of his works as of common articles, and have joined together to load him with praise, it is impossible that France should not have a right to expect the same services from the zeal and patriotism of this writer; and he, in his turn, will have a right to expect from her the same applause.

LIBERTY.

LIGHT of all lands! how sweetly forth,
 Like joy, in sorrow spoken,
 Bursts on the nations of the earth
 Her glorious star, of heavenly birth,
 O'er chains renounc'd and broken.

And with her thousand harmonies,
 Woke to celestial tone,
 The heart, the bounding heart, replies
 Like the glad lark, in her own skies,
 A music all its own.

* The deer upon the mountain side,
 Bounds, roaming wide and wild,
 But its free native hills denied,
 The morning dew, the chrystal tide,
 Soon pines the forest child.

The eagle's tameless soul decays,
 Shut from the glorious day;
 Droop'd his vain pinion, dimm'd the gaze
 That, quenchless, dar'd the noontide blaze,
 And drank the living ray.

In vain the joyous heaven and earth
 Smile in the captive's eye;
 They call no thrill of transport forth,
 The voice of freedom and of mirth
 But mocks his misery.

Nature, in bounty unconfin'd,
 Showers down her gifts on all;
 But man, usurping man, would bind
 The unfetter'd thought, the quenchless mind,
 In base, ignoble thrall.

Fain would he fix the chain of shame
 Upon a race of slaves;
 But surer hope were his to tame
 The gales that blow, the fires that flame,
 Or ocean's thousand waves.

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BY LORD HARRINGTON

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CHAPTER XVIII.

The Turks make an ineffectual Attempt to land a Body of Troops at Gyzeh. Nomination of a Viceroy of Egypt, and his arrival at Cairo. Departure of the Grand Vizier. Interesting Anecdote of the Honesty of an Arab, and Gratitude of the Beys. Numerous Desertions amongst the Troops of the Garrison. News from Europe, announcing the Peace of Amiens. Some of the Indian Troops receive an Order to depart. The Army quits Egypt, and embarks for Suez.

TOWARDS the end of January, the Turks made an attempt to land at Gyzeh; but the garrison troops immediately armed themselves and compelled them to retreat. They reascended the river, and landed under the ramparts of the town, from whence they sent a detachment of cavalry to take possession of Mourâd Bey's country-house, which was situated in the neighbourhood, and which we had converted into a hospital for those infected with the plague, under the protection of a military guard. A company of the 8th light dragoons, which had arrived on the preceding day, pursued them, gained the advantage over them, and reached the house in time to defend the entrance. The Turkish officer, who was an Hungarian renegade, did not dare to charge our troops. He said that he had been ordered to occupy the post; but that, since they refused to permit him, he was anxious to spare the effusion of blood, and would, therefore, send for fresh instructions, and wait their arrival before he took any further steps. These instructions arrived at eleven in the evening, when he returned and joined those Turks who were in pursuit of the Beys. General Stuart left us on the 28th, and was followed by Lord Cavan, on the 30th, both for Alexandria.

The Grand Vizier being about to quit Egypt, the Porte appointed Mohammed Yousouf Pasha, to succeed him in the administration of the country in quality of Viceroy. This person arrived at Cairo, from Alexandria, in February; on which, the Vizier immediately ordered his army to hold itself in readiness to march. He encamped his troops in the vicinity of Cairo.

He was extremely anxious, before his departure, to obtain the restoration of forts Ibrahim and Gyzeh. Lord Cavan yielded to his wishes with regard to the first of these places, but would never consent to give up the second, which was an essential point to insure the return of the army to India, and which also contained all the magazines.

One day, in the beginning of March, whilst the General was at breakfast, the Sheik-el-Bekir came to implore his protection. He had been obliged to quit Cairo, the new Viceroy having ordered him to be arrested and put to death. He was an old man of about sixty, whose only crime was that of having shown too great an attachment towards the French, and particularly for General Buonaparte. The conduct of the Viceroy towards him was a direct violation of the treaty of Cairo, General Belliard having stipulated that no one should be annoyed for his opinions or conduct with regard to the French.

General Ramsay wrote immediately to the Viceroy to claim the performance of this promise, and to demand for the Sheik-el-Bekir a free return to Cairo.

The Viceroy returned an extremely polite answer, promising at the same time that the Sheik should not again be disturbed. El Bekir returned to his abode; but our departure probably delivered him up to that vengeance from which we had for a short time respited him. This, however, I cannot take upon myself to affirm.

The plague was beginning its ravages at Boulac, at Cairo, at Rehmanieh, and in Middle Egypt. The General, consequently, adopted the strictest measures to preserve Gyzeh from this contagion. All communication with the capital was interdicted, and the boats, which either ascended or descended the river, were subjected to a quarantine. These precautions were most urgent, and happily effectual; for Gyzeh was, I believe, almost the only town in Egypt, which remained exempt from the contagion. The Indian army at Rosetta was attacked by it and lost several soldiers. One of our surgeons affirmed that this cruel malady was not epidemic, nor even absolutely dangerous in all cases. He offered his services to attend those who were attacked by it, and even inoculated himself, as well as a young Arab who was in his service, with the virus; both, however, fell victims to their temerity.

The zeal of our other surgeons was unbounded; several of them shut themselves up in the lazaretto with the sufferers, and were rewarded for their noble devotion by the very small number of those who fell victims to the disease. An extraordinary fact and one worthy of recital occurred to a soldier of the 26th light dragoons. This man, attacked by the disorder, felt his end approaching, and, suffering the torments of a raging thirst, said to the physicians, 'I have only a few moments to live; give me, I implore you, a bottle of port wine; that will, perhaps, calm the agonies I am enduring!' The physician consented, and gave the bottle to the dragoon, who swallowed the whole of its contents at a single draught, then threw himself back on his couch, and fell into a profound sleep. On awaking, he found himself considerably better; he no longer felt the torture of thirst, and the raging

pains he had before endured, he subdued. His courage and strength increased hourly, and the patient speedily saw himself perfectly restored to health. From this time, the doctor administered port wine to all his patients, and did not lose one. It is remarkable, that, although we lost several soldiers, not a single officer perished. Can it be that they were indebted to a better-served table, for this exception? It appears, I think, extremely probable.

Mr. Burroughs, Attorney-General at Bengal, arrived at Gyzeh from India, during the month of March. He returned to England by the same route we did. An extraordinary adventure happened to this gentleman, which I shall relate; because it does honour to the Beys, and to the fidelity of the Arabs, who do not in general pride themselves much on this virtue. When he left Kench, where he embarked to descend the Nile, his servant left behind him, by mistake, in the house which they had occupied, a small box belonging to his master: it contained several letters of exchange, a considerable sum in gold, and jewels, and other valuable articles. The lock was injured, and the box might consequently have been opened with very little difficulty. The servant did not discover the loss, until they were at too great a distance to think of returning to Kench. On his arrival at Gyzeh, however, Mr. Burroughs informed General Ramsay of the loss he had sustained, and begged him to interest himself in his behalf with Ibrahim Bey and Selim. The General wrote, and despatched a Courier to the Beys, not, however, without some fear as to his safe arrival, from the troubled state of the country. But, before his letter could possibly have reached its destination, the Sheikh of Kench, in whose hands the casket had been placed, apprised Ibrahim of it, who immediately ordered a son of one of the Bedouin Chiefs to carry it to Cairo, by way of the desert, in order to avoid the Turks, and to deliver it from him to General Ramsay, to whom he also wrote to express the great pleasure he experienced at having it in his power to evince, in the smallest degree, his gratitude for the many kindnesses with which he had loaded him. I received this casket by order of the General, and, although it was open, and the lid only secured by cords, I nevertheless found, according to the inventory left with me by Mr. Burroughs, that nothing was missing. The Arab demanded a receipt, stating that the casket was untouched, and an answer to Ibrahim Bey's letter. The General gave him both, and offered him a reward, in the name of the owner. This, however, the Arab refused, Ibrahim having, he said, expressly forbidden him to accept any.

Mr. Hamilton returned from his expedition into Upper Egypt towards the middle of April. He had every where met with the kindest reception, for which he was indebted to the Beys, who had given strict orders, to this effect, and had secured to him every possible facility. He informed us, that the plague had made great

ravages in the towns and villages of the Sudd, and that he had been compelled to have recourse to all kinds of precautions to prevent his people from communicating with the insurgents; but that, happily, during the whole of his journey, not a single man of his party had been attacked by the disorder.

About this time, a young man, habited as a Turk, but calling himself a native of Guernsey, arrived at our garrison. He spoke both French and English extremely well, and related to us his history; according to which, he had been taken prisoner by the Turks, and compelled to enter their service. He added, that he had escaped from their hands, and had come to claim his rights as an Englishman, desiring to engage himself as a soldier in the 18th Regiment. The interesting countenance of this youth pleaded so forcibly in his behalf, that he was admitted. The new-comer made, however, such good use of his time, that he succeeded, in a very few days, in seducing a great number of soldiers, who went over to the Turks. The desertion, indeed, became so alarming that the General sent me to make complaints on this subject to the Viceroy. I did not doubt that the fugitives had arrived at Cairo, and took with me two dragoons to arrest them. On the road, I learnt that several had been seen to enter the citadel. They wished to form a body at Cairo, disciplined according to the European mode, and it was with our people that they proposed to organise it. I said to the Viceroy, that I had come to claim some soldiers who had deserted their standard; that the General knew they were at Cairo; that he had even learnt they had taken refuge in the citadel. He replied, that he was totally ignorant of it; but that, if it were really the case, he would engage his word to send them back to Gyzeh.

On my return home, I perceived, near Fort Ibrahim, in the midst of a detachment of Turkish troops, two men disguised, whom I recognised as soldiers belonging to the 18th regiment. I continued my route without appearing to remark them. On my arrival at Gyzeh, however, I informed General Ramsay of the circumstance, but told him that I had not a sufficient force with me to arrest the deserters, and that, the Viceroy having, besides, promised to send them back, I had thought it advisable to await his determination.

During the night of the 24th, nine other soldiers deserted, carrying with them their arms, and accompanied by the young native of Guernsey. A dragoon followed their example, taking with him his horse. We then discovered that we had been duped, and that our Englishman was nothing more than the agent of the Viceroy.

The General, being much irritated at this conduct, sent me again to Cairo, at seven in the morning, with a positive order to claim the deserters, and to notify that, if in the space of three hours they were not given up, all communication between Cairo and Gyzeh must

case. I took with me twelve dragoons, to arrest such of the fugitives as I might overtake on the road, and to escort back those who should be delivered up to me. Arrived near Cairo, we spurred our horses, and entered the court of the palace at full gallop, where my little troop ranged itself in order of battle. This bold bearing seemed to intimidate the Turks, who, on their side, advanced a detachment of cavalry and of infantry.

I entered the Viceroy's palace, explained to him the motive of my visit, and, with my watch in my hand, granted him three hours, within which space of time all the deserters were to be given up to me.

I had scarcely concluded my conference, when one of my dragoons requested permission to speak with me, and informed me that the serjeant who commanded them had just seized, from a Turkish soldier, a musket belonging to the 18th regiment. I gave orders for its retention, and communicated this circumstance to the Viceroy, who then wished to persuade me that they had arrested one of the deserters, and that he was then in the palace. I requested to see him, and, on questioning him, learnt that he had been seduced by a man belonging to the household of the Viceroy, and speaking English, from which circumstances I judged that the person indicated could have been no other than a dragoman, formerly attached to the service of Lord Keith. I then begged the Viceroy, who denied any knowledge or participation in these proceedings, to have the culprit sought for. My deserter recognised him immediately, and I insisted, more peremptorily than ever, on the others being delivered up to me. At length, by dint of menaces, I succeeded in prevailing on the Viceroy to give up nine, with a promise to send the remainder on the following morning; a promise which he faithfully kept; but all our endeavours to seize the English traitor were unsuccessful.

These poor wretches were, on their arrival, brought before a council of war, and all condemned to death: clemency, however, prevailed, and two only were executed; the others obtained pardon.

Such were the events which were passing amongst us, when the peace concluded at Amiens, between the warlike Powers, put an end to our stay in Egypt. The Indian army received orders to return to Calcutta, with the exception of the 10th, 61st, and 80th regiments; which, to their great regret, were recalled to Europe. The troops were at liberty individually to offer their services for India; and about from a thousand to twelve hundred men availed themselves of this permission.

On the 10th of May the army concentrated itself at Gyzeh; where preparations had been made for its reception, as well as for its crossing the desert to Suez, where the fleet awaited it.

As I had almost the sole charge of these arrangements, I took care to establish two depôts of provisions and water, the one at Birket-el-Hadji, at the entrance of the desert, and the other about half way on the route. The distance from Cairo to Suez is about twenty-three leagues; and there is not a single drop of water to be met with on the whole of the road from Birket-el-Hadji to that post.

The army passed through Boulac before entering the desert, and made the journey in detachments.

General Baird left with the last. We separated from him with very great regret. This worthy chief had always distinguished himself by the lively interest which he took in the officers under his command, and by his solicitude for the comfort of the soldiers. Severe, but strictly just, in the exercise of his duties, he was equally loved and respected by all his subordinates.

Gyzeu was completely evacuated on the 21st, which plunged the inhabitants in the greatest distress. The town appeared quite deserted; for, such was the dread inspired by the Turks, that they almost invariably concealed themselves on their approach.

The army repaired to Suez, and embarked for India on the evening of the 6th of June, with the exception of a detachment of sepoys, one of the soldiers of which had been attacked by the plague. This detachment sailed about the end of July.

Before quitting Gyzeu, General Ramsay paid a visit to the Viceroy. Until then he had always avoided seeing him, feeling, from many circumstances which had come to his knowledge, nothing but dislike and contempt for his character. The General was old, and consequently rather timid on horseback; Mohammed Yousouf, who, on his arrival, saw him take some precaution in dismounting, indulged in a little ridicule on the occasion, and exclaimed to his interpreter, from whom I afterwards learnt it, 'Is it this timid old man, then, who has sometimes endeavoured to intimidate me? He may congratulate himself that I was not sooner acquainted with him; I should then have acted with him more at my ease, and have made a more advantageous bargain.' But the Viceroy was mistaken; the General's firmness was equal to his bravery; and neither ridicule nor menaces could have made him deviate, for a moment, from the right path. This worthy officer had gained his rank at the point of his sword, and amongst many other anecdotes of him, related in the army, was that of his memorable conduct at the battle of Lincelles in 1794, where, at the head of the 40th regiment of infantry of the line, he repulsed a force triple in numbers to his own, giving proof, on the field of battle, of equal intrepidity and presence of mind.

CHAPTER XIX.

Departure of the Author from Boulae for Alexandria—Description of this Town and its Environs—Misunderstanding between the English and the Turks—The latter are driven out of the Town—Symptoms of Plague in the Army—Arrival of Despatches from England, which is followed by the Expedition of one of the Commander-in-Chief's Aides-de-camp to Cairo—Some Remarks on the Mamelukes, after their departure from Gyzah—Reflections on the actual State of Egypt, and the Pasha who governs it—The Author quits the Army, and returns to England.

I ~~quitte~~ Boulae on the morning of the 24th of May, and embarked on the Nile, with four of my companions, who had obtained leave from General Baird to return to Europe. The period of my service on the staff of the Indian army having expired, I only thought of returning to Alexandria, where my regiment was encamped, and on the point of leaving Egypt for Gibraltar. We descended the Nile as far as Rahmanieh, where we landed on the 28th; from thence we continued our journey to Alexandria, by way of Damanhour.

Major Moore, who was second in command of the cavalry, was stationed here; and lent us both horses and camels. We reached Damanhour on the 22d, at one in the afternoon, and were received by the officers of the 26th with the greatest cordiality. The plague had unfortunately commenced its ravages here, and orders had just been given for the encampment of the troops without the town.

On the morning of the 31st, we continued our route towards Alexandria, where we arrived the following day, at noon. During the greater part of our march, our course had been along the bank of an old canal, (now dry,) which formerly conducted the waters of the Nile from Rahmanieh to Alexandria, and we crossed, by a bridge of boats, the intrenchment made by the English army, after the battle of the 21st of March. This intrenchment had been made to cut off the possibility of the waters of the Nile reaching Alexandria, then occupied by a French garrison. This canal has since been reconstructed, by the Viceroy, Mohammed-Aly, under the direction of French engineers; an immense work, which has cost the Pasha enormous sums, and which must be regarded as a great benefit to the commerce of Egypt, since it has re-established a certain communication between this town and the Nile.

The English garrison, which occupied Alexandria after the departure of the French troops, felt in their turn the consequences of the measure they had adopted for preventing the waters of the Nile from reaching Alexandria. The cisterns of the town were no longer supplied from it; the water furnished by the wells was brackish, and that which was brought from Rosetta in boats, was

the only kind of which they could make use. The beautiful gardens which were formerly the ornament of Alexandria, being no longer fertilised by the mud deposited by the waters of the canal, had become almost as barren as the desert which borders them.

Founded by the Macedonian Conqueror, who, sensible of all the advantages of its position, conceived the hope of its becoming one day the centre of the commerce of the whole world, the town of Alexandria is seated on a long and narrow slip of land between the sea and the Lake Mareotis, with which it communicates by means of Cleopatra's canal, which at once furnishes it with the water necessary for the consumption of the inhabitants, and facilitates its commerce with the interior. But this town, so celebrated in antiquity, and which, under the brilliant court of the Lagides, enjoyed, during three centuries, a continually flourishing state of prosperity, is now only the shadow of its former self. Its unpaved streets are narrow and crooked; its houses low and unwholesome; its public edifices poor and in bad taste; and, after having, according to Diodorus Siculus, contained a population of 300,000 free men, and more than double that number of women and slaves, it now does not count more than from 15,000 to 20,000 inhabitants.

Alexandria is divided into the old and new town; the first of which is of much greater extent than the second. It is partly encircled by walls of Arab architecture, flanked with towers. Their circumference is calculated at two leagues; but the space which they enclose forms but a very small portion of the ancient town of the Ptolomies, the ruins of which are seen scattered over a surface three times as considerable. The foot of the traveller encounters at every step the remains of monuments and foundations, actually level with the soil: every thing presents to the view traces of the most frightful desolation; and, in those burning sands formerly covered with so many edifices, nothing is now seen but a few straggling date trees, or some isolated columns, the silent evidences of a splendour which no longer exists.

Amongst those ancient remains which more particularly attract the attention is Pompey's Pillar, considered by several travellers to be the most perfect architectural column which exists of its kind, and the height of which is about 115 feet. Next to this may be ranked the two obelisks, vulgarly called Cleopatra's Needles; one of which is still standing, and the other overthrown. Although more than fifty feet high, and seven feet in circumference at the base, they are, nevertheless, formed out of a solid block of granite. It is conjectured that they formerly ornamented the entrance to the palace of the Ptolomies, the ruins of which are seen very near this spot.

Edifices of another description, but not less wonderful, equally attract the attention of the traveller; these are the Catacombs, or grottos, cut in the rock, which have served for the interment of

whole generations. They commence at the extremity of the old town, and extend to a considerable distance along the coast. As to the celebrated Pharos, placed by the ancients amongst the wonders of the world, it is now a castle called Pharillon, which serves as a directing guide to vessels entering the port.

The slip of land on which Alexandria is built is nearly a league in length. On each of the two shores of this point is a port. That of the western side, or the old port, was not frequented by the Europeans before the arrival of the French in Egypt. The entrance to it is narrow and difficult; but, once cleared, the bason is capable of receiving the largest ships, and the point called the Fig Trees shelters them, by its position, both from the north and north-west winds. The inhabitants of Alexandria had formerly on these shores pleasure-houses and delicious gardens, which they made very productive by the manure deposited by the canal and cisterns of the town. This point of land is still famous for the hunting of birds of passage, which come here in great numbers, particularly at the commencement of winter, when they quit the coasts of Europe in search of warmer climates. An historical recollection is attached to this spot: it is said to be here that Mark Antony, flying before the conqueror Octavius, came to demand protection from Cleopatra, after the battle of Actium: it is in the celebrated tower which is situated on this bank, that the Old Triumvir killed himself to escape the chairs of the conqueror.

On the other side is the east and new port, which is exposed to the east and north winds, and rendered rather dangerous by the numerous shoals which surround it. It is defended by the forts of the great and little Pharos. During my stay at Alexandria, this port was filled with merchant ships of all nations, but principally Turkish, Austrian, and Ragusian: the Old Port, on the contrary, was almost exclusively occupied by Turkish and English ships of war, as well as by our transports.

The population of Alexandria, like that of Cairo, is a mixture of Arabs, Turks, Kopts, Jews, and a few European merchants, who carry on a very lucrative commerce here.

A continual communication is kept up with Rosetta. A great number of boats arrive here every day, laden with the productions of Egypt, which are immediately transferred over to the merchant ships that frequent this port.

The environs of Alexandria, at the time of my stay there, were infested by numerous tribes of Bedouins, the vicinity to whom is always attended with some danger. We were twice obliged to have recourse to hostile measures, in order to keep them in order; but, happily, threats alone sufficed to intimidate them.

These environs are rich in vestiges of former times. The principal objects worthy of notice are the ruins of Canopus, and the remains

of Cleopatra's Baths, now almost entirely immersed in water. Magnificent columns lie buried under the waves, which seem almost to luxuriate in rolling over these noble wrecks of ancient splendour.

A great quantity of old medals and engraved stones are also found buried in the soil, with which the inhabitants carry on an extensive commerce, which they frequently endeavour to render still more lucrative, by the sale of counterfeits, more or less perfect, by means of which they impose on the credulity or ignorance of strangers.

The Proteus of the animal kingdom, the cameleon, so curious from the astonishing quality with which it is gifted; of taking the colour of whatever object it approaches, abounds in the sands of Alexandria. The desert is also filled with jerboas, or Pharaoh's rats. The jerboa is a small and extremely pretty animal, whose black eyes possess a most astonishing degree of brilliancy. Its long and bare tail, terminating in a black and white tuft, its deep grey skin, its round head and ears edged with white, and above all, the extreme shortness of the front paws in comparison with the hinder ones, (a disproportion which obliges the animal to move by jumps and leaps,) distinguish it from every other of its species.

Since our arrival at Alexandria, the army had enjoyed an uninterrupted state of perfect health, when symptoms of the plague suddenly appeared in the town, and spread the greatest alarm throughout our ranks. Measures were immediately taken to secure us from this frightful malady. The regiments of the line were ordered to encamp at a certain distance from each other, and to refrain from all unnecessary communication with the inhabitants; the cavalry, stationed in the neighbourhood of Damanhour, where the contagion raged with the greatest violence, received orders to quit the infectious spot, and to encamp near the sea: strict injunctions were given to the soldiers to preserve from their effects only that which was absolutely requisite, and to bathe themselves twice a day in the lake Mareotis. These precautions arrested the progress of the evil, but did not entirely prevent it, as several soldiers of the 10th of the line, to which I also belonged, fell victims to it.

This critical moment had at length passed, when the Commander-in-Chief, Lord Cavan, having received intelligence of the signature of the Treaty of Peace at Amiens, and judging that the English would not remain much longer in Egypt, permitted the Turks to take possession of some of the fortresses, only reserving to himself that of Caffarelli, which commanded the town and Fort Triangular, situated to the west of Alexandria. At the same time a Turkish vessel of eighty guns, and some frigates, under the command of the Capitana Bey, came and anchored in the Old Port.

Still no orders for our departure arrived, and we were now in the middle of June. The Osmanlies began to feel impatient, and the misunderstanding became at last so great, that the General thought

it necessary to adopt some precautionary measures. He recalled the 10th regiment, who now encamped in the town, to restrain this turbulent soldiery, and, should the occasion require it, to repress their insolence.

Meanwhile, some of our sentinels were killed, and others insulted at their posts; on which the 10th took up arms; but the aggressors hid themselves, and we were unable to secure them.

Lord Cavan then sent to Churchid Aga, who commanded the Turkish troops to signify to him, that, if he did not punish the culprits, he would expel all the Osmanlies from the place. The Aga, intimidated, promised satisfaction; two Turks were in fact arrested, ordered to be strangled, and executed on the spot. They were two green-turbaned janissaries, a head-dress which, as it is well known, is the exclusive distinction of those Musulmans who have performed the pilgrimage to Mecca, and visited the tomb of the Prophet, or who belong to the family of Ali.

Their execution, looked on as impious, became the signal for a revolt among the Osmanlies, who considered themselves insulted by the punishment of true believers immolated to the manes of a few vile Christians, and for which they swore to be revenged. These exasperated men, indeed, made a sudden attack on me and such of my comrades as had been present with me at this military execution, for which we were quite unprovided, and had only just time to save ourselves by a hasty flight to our regiments, who immediately took up arms. The order for chasing the Turks out of the town was then given, and executed on the moment; but we lost, on this occasion, two more of our soldiers, who were assassinated by the infuriated Turks. Once expelled, they did not again obtain permission to return to the town; we, therefore, remained in undisturbed possession of it.

On the 20th of January, a council of war, of which I was appointed Judge, was ordered to assemble for the purpose of passing sentence on the captain of a Turkish vessel, which, having entered the old port with the plague on board, had made no announcement of it. Several dead bodies, which this officer had had thrown into the water since his arrival, were found on the coast; and, the crime being fully proved, the captain was condemned to be publicly flogged in the market, or bazaar, of the town. This miserable wretch only escaped the pain of death, which he had justly incurred, because, by a happy chance, not a single inhabitant lost his life from his shameful conduct.

On the 3d of August, Lord Cavan received despatches from England, which rendered it necessary to send one of his Aides-de-camp to Cairo. New plans of conciliation were proposed in the

affair of the Beys; but it was too late: the Viceroy would listen to nothing.

The Mamelukes, attacked by the Turks, had driven them back, with great loss, as far as Gyzeh. As soon, however, as the Beys learned that the English were again endeavouring to open fresh negociations in their favour, they retired, signifying to the Osmanlies, that, whilst there was any hope of an amicable arrangement, they would commit no more hostilities. When, however, they found that all negociation had ceased, they returned again to the attack.

Sometimes conquerors, sometimes vanquished, and utterly disabled from repairing the losses they sustained, these brave men at length found themselves obliged to give way before forces constantly renewed, and each day becoming more numerous, and to retire to Upper Egypt, from whence the small number of those who escaped the sword took refuge in Nubia; where they continue to wander to this day, objects of the pity, rather than the fear, of their ferocious enemies. My poor friend Selim, whom I sincerely regretted, was amongst the number of those who fell.

The orders for our departure, which we were in daily expectation of receiving, did not arrive sufficiently early for my wishes; and, as my affairs required my presence in England, I resolved to ask leave to precede the army in my return, which I had the good fortune to obtain.

I was then going to quit for ever the classic land of Egypt, so celebrated in the annals of history, and now so fallen. I left under the yoke of barbarians, the soil which the recollections of former times have rendered so illustrious; whose monuments, the imperishable evidences of its glory, delight and astonish the traveller after a duration of forty centuries, and will continue to strike succeeding generations with equal wonder and admiration. Involuntarily occupied with melancholy reflections on the decay of human grandeur, to which the surrounding objects gave rise, I could not refrain from asking myself, if our old Europe, so proud of its civilisation, was one day destined to offer a sad and new example of those political revolutions which shake empires and nations even to their very foundations, and efface them from the book of life, to leave nothing behind them but a vain and empty name. I asked myself if a time would come, in which, on the spot now occupied by so many flourishing cities, the traveller, astonished to meet with nothing but ruins, would seek in vain to recognise them; if the same eye, afflicted by the melancholy sight of barren wastes, where formerly were seated Memphis and Palmyra, would no longer meet, under other latitudes, but with similar remains of a similar grandeur.

On the eve of quitting Egypt for ever, where I had now passed fifteen months, I experienced deep regret, not at leaving it, but at the idea of abandoning it to the government of a people so little calculated to raise it from its fallen state, and to place it in the rank it ought to hold amongst nations.

In a country, where the sword constitutes the only form of government, where the will of a single man disposes of the fate of all the others, where the wants and complaints of the subjects remain unredressed,—in such a country industry must necessarily disappear, and civilisation cease to make any progress. It is in vain that the fertile plains of the Nile are every year covered with the richest harvests: those who have cultivated them derive no profit from these gifts of the earth; greedy collectors take possession of them all in the name of the prince, who is by birth proprietor of the soil, which he uses according to his will.

To support, for any length of time, such a state of things, it is easy to imagine how greatly the despot must be interested in keeping the people in ignorance, which is his only security for their submission. If one idea of justice, or right of property, should come to enlighten them; if the laborious fellah who sows, should at-o determine to reap, and where he to become sensible of the advantages of legal rights, from that moment the master would no longer be enabled to seize on those sources which swell his riches, and the reign of the despot would be at an end.

It is difficult, no doubt, to assign a period at which such a change in the morals of a people, whom a long state of slavery has rendered almost insensible to their yoke, is likely to take place; but it is by no means an impossible occurrence, and many other causes may contribute to effect it. What a spontaneous, sudden, and unforeseen movement has done in the fields of Greece, a similar impulse may accomplish in the plains of the Nile; and who can say where the ruin which seems to threaten the empire of the Crescent may end?

Whatever may happen, the Egypt of the present day is no longer the same as that of which the melancholy aspect, at the commencement of this century, has so often distressed my sight. It is not that the form of its Government has changed; the scimitar is still the only code by which it is ruled; but, at least, it is no longer in sanguinary hands, and, if it is again unsheathed, it will only be to strike guilty heads.

God forbid, however, that I should brand with this name the unhappy Greeks, who have fallen the victims of Egyptian policy; subservient to the policy of the Divan, I speak here only of the conduct of the Pasha, in the domestic exercise of his power. But, if the country is still destitute of institutions, the exalted views of

the man who governs it in a great measure make up for this deficiency, and his administration will be found, on an impartial view, to merit great praise. A regular and well-disciplined army raised, a navy created, public establishments founded, manufactures established, Cleopatra's canal rebuilt, a commercial intercourse entered into with all nations, protection granted to European travellers, the limits of the territory extended beyond the tenth degree of latitude: all these benefits have been conferred on Egypt, by the present Viceroy, and give him a just title to celebrity and honour.

European philanthropists may call him barbarous and impious, for taking up arms against Christian Greece, which aspires to independence; but they do not consider, that, in his double character of Musulman and Turk, the war which Mohammed-Aly wages against the Greeks, who have revolted against Islamism and the Porte, may appear doubly sacred in his eyes, even supposing that he is not compelled by his political situation to adopt this course.

Humanity must, no doubt, grieve for the effusion of noble blood, which at this moment inundates the soil of Greece. The recollections attached to this land of genius, the noble cause which she defends, every thing combines to insure her our sympathy; but the commiseration which she excites ought not, therefore, to prejudice, and make us blind to the merits of their enemies.

Towards the middle of September, a favourable occasion presenting itself for my sailing, I at length embarked for England, where I arrived in perfect safety, having touched at Malta and Gibraltar on my passage.

THE RETROSPECT.

As in those climes, where, on the mountain's steep,
 Girt with its garments of eternal snow,
 You may behold the sun-lit vales below,
 That in their rich and smiling beauty sleep,—
 So do the early scenes of other years
 Rise vividly before us—and it seems
 But yesterday since those bright noon-day dreams
 Beguiled us with their many hopes and fears:
 We wonder if that other stage of life,
 Which in immeasurable distance lay,
 Hath been attain'd already—day by day
 Sweeps onward thus, until the busy strife
 Of man's existence all ingulph'd shall be
 In the dark ocean of eternity.

ISABEL DE MENDEZ.

A SHORT distance from one of the chief towns in Colombia, I remember to have seen, some three or four years ago, a romantic little cottage, which displayed a portion of its thatched front through the stately trees that adorned the paradisiacal spot whereon it stood, and which was then occupied by an elderly couple of the name of Mendez, whose native village is a good hour's ride from Toledo, in Spain. A desire to accumulate riches drew this once joyous pair from the enviable luxury of a rural life, and the halcyon days of blissful enjoyment, to the remote regions of the New World.

When these worthy folks embarked for the scene of imagined wealth and happiness, they were accompanied by their accomplished daughter, the beautiful Isabel, whose sylph-like form and fascinating, yet artless, manners, rendered her an object of universal adoration. Her dark expressive eyes were of unequalled beauty; and tresses of the most luxuriant auburn hung in playful ringlets about her elegantly shaped neck; and her cheeks were of 'a celestial rosy red, love's proper hue.'

There went passenger in the same vessel a young ensign, by name Diego Ruëz, who was proceeding with his regiment to reduce to obedience the revolted colonists of Spanish India. The youthful Diego was struck with amazement when he beheld the transcendent beauties of the charming Isabel; but, when he listened to the silvery tones of her enchanting voice, and dwelt, with raptures, on the bewitching sweetness of her guileless deportment, his young heart felt a pang it had never known till then. He unhesitatingly professed himself the sincere admirer of the fair Isabel, and solicited the honour of her hand, to which her kind parents readily assented, after mature deliberation, and not without the consent of the generous Isabel herself, whose affections he had won by his manly comport.

About one month subsequent to this interesting moment, the vessel reached her destination; and Don Francisco Villareal, commandant of the garrison, and uncle to the youthful lover, came on board to welcome his nephew to New Spain, who embraced his relative, and introduced him to the object of his solicitude.

The worthy commandant received his intended niece with the warmth and affection of a parent, and expressed himself in the handsomest terms, delighted with the lovely girl, but strongly urged a postponement of the happy nuptials, until Diego had attained a higher rank in his honourable profession, which he was apprehensive the weighty cares of conjugal felicity might, in one so young, tend to retard; and which the worthy commandant was at much pains

to explain. Isabel saw the cruel necessity of yielding to the dictates of her dear Diego's monitor, and cheerfully submitted to sentiments emanating from a mind matured by prudence and discretion. A few short weeks after the landing of these happy voyagers, the regiment to which Diego was attached received orders to join the main body of the royalists. This distressing intelligence terrified the tender Isabel; but she sighed in secret, and strove to combat the feelings which assailed her troubled breast, with a meritorious magnanimity; yet she was distracted at the thought of parting so suddenly from her affianced lord, and the dangers he would have to encounter preyed heavily upon her spirits.

The dreaded moment of separation came; and the youthful lovers met to bid each other an affectionate adieu. 'Diego,' said the lovely girl, as her brilliant eyes were for a moment dimmed by a suffusion of heartfelt tears, which imparted an inexpressible melancholy to her angelic countenance, 'you are going to leave me, perhaps for ever! Do not go, my dearest Diego,—pray do not go, my love!' 'Be not so distressed,' replied the confident youth; 'I leave you but for a time—to return to thy arms deserving such wonderful goodness. I go to conquer, not to die! I go, my Isabel, to achieve a name worthy thy love. Thy image is indelibly engraven on my heart; and, when I think of thee, thou loveliest of thy sex! the horrors of war will nerve my willing arm, and make a very hero of thy unalterable and ever fond Diego. Come, come, my dearest, best beloved Isabel, be not so distressed!' Much more the lovers whispered ere they embraced again, and bade each other a fond farewell.

During a period of three years, the youthful Diego made a rapid advancement in his profession, and acquitted himself on all occasions with honour to his own reputation as well as to his country. About this period a letter was received from the colonel of Diego's regiment, addressed to the father of Isabel, whose affectionate heart was overjoyed when she saw the well-known messenger present the long-expected packet. 'Bless me, Pedro,' exclaimed the lovely girl, 'you appear sad; are you fatigued, Pedro?' continued the unsuspecting Isabel, and begged that he would retire and refresh himself.

She fondly and eagerly watched the eyes of her father as they were fixed upon the seal: he broke the fastening—and an involuntary sigh escaped him. 'My dear father,' said the generous girl, when she saw the colour forsake her parent's cheeks, as he perused the fatal paper, 'what, in the name of the Holy Virgin, is the matter, Sir? Oh! my Diego, my dear Diego, is killed!' The old man pressed his beloved child to his perturbed breast, whilst a tear of sympathy moistened his aged eye. 'There, read, my dear girl, for I cannot speak it! * * * The lost Isabel received the ominous writing with a trembling hand, and cast her beautiful eyes

hastily over its contents : it told her that her Diego had ceased to exist ! He died in the arms of Victory ! The poor Isabel shrieked aloud, and fell senseless into the arms of her distressed father. ' My child ! my child ! ' cried the good old man, ' live ! live ! to make thy dear father happy ! Oh ! ' exclaimed the bewildered Mendez, ' that these cruel wars should rob the innocent of peace, and convert their happiness into the bitterest woe ! My dearest Isabel, 'tis your old father that calls upon you. Open those eyes of thine that were wont to gladden his fond heart. Speak to me, my girl ! Oh ! speak to me, my dearest child ! For the love of God, speak ! '

Isabel opened her bright eyes : she cast a wild glance at her agonised parent, but again swooned away. A little time elapsed, and the poor girl once more recovered, but she knew not those around her : the dire catastrophe had deprived her of reason. ' Where is my Diego ? my love ? ' she cried, in accents that would have softened the most obdurate heart. ' Give him to me, ye barbarians ! Restore him to my arms, ye cruel wretches ! Oh ! gracious Heaven, why persecute me thus ? but I will see my love ! my life ! My Diego, where art thou ? ' The raving Isabel sank upon the ground in a state of insensibility. Her matchless eyes lost their bright lustre ; and the roseate colour of her once rounded cheek was usurped by the ghastly hue of the faded lily. The beautiful Isabel de Mendez was only known by name.

Often has she trodden the burning sands of inhospitable Colombia, unpitied and forlorn, beseeching Heaven to hearken to her lamentations. I saw her, for the last time, ere she bade an eternal adieu to this world of strife : she was musing, as was her wonted custom, in the public street, but with an air, methought, of peculiar serenity and apparent rationality. Perceiving that I noticed her, she approached towards me with a hurried step, and, looking earnestly in my face, she faintly said, ' Have you seen my beloved ? ' ' Ah, Isabel,' I replied, ' he is happy, he is in heaven ! ' ' Diego happy, and me miserable ! no, no, it cannot be ! Didst thou know my love, then ? Oh, he was the idol of my soul, my heart's core ! But I know he is dead ; he is gone, gone for ever ! I tell thee what, stranger,' said the bewildered maiden, as her countenance assumed a look of the most dignified composure, and placing the fore-finger of her right hand upon my lips, as she directed the other towards the skies, ' I tell thee, stranger, thou must not breathe his name ! There, there, I see him, he beckons to me ! Look, look, there, there, how his lips move ! he chides me for my tardiness ! I come, dearest Diego, I come ! ' She uttered these unmeaning words in a tone of deep despair, that made me shudder. ' Come, Isabel,' said I, ' let me take you home, your mother has been seeking you.' ' Seeking for me, ha, ha, ha ! My mother seeking Isabel, ha, ha ! You trifle with my feelings, Senor : my mother has been dead and buried full twenty years ago, and my poor old father, too, is with her in paradise ! My mother seeking me ! Why, how canst thou

insult me thus ? But Diego is not here ; and I have no one left to protect me now,' said the poor maniac, whilst a profusion of burning tears bedewed her colourless cheek.

I could not leave her—I pressed her warm hand—she opened her eloquent eyes, and a faint smile acknowledged the emotion of her broken heart. It was the last effort of exhausted nature—she trembled sadly—I placed my hand upon her forehead : it was cold and moist—I spoke to her, but she answered not—her spirit had fled !

THE MINSTREL MAID TO HER ABSENT KNIGHT.

Thou'art gone, my noble knight,
To glad the eyes of ladies bright,—
Nor think'st thou in the woodland bower
Pines thy once cherish'd Mountain Flower.

Thy foot is lightest in the dance ;
And in the tournament thy lance
And waving plume are loftiest ;
And richest is thy mailed vest.

And when the clarion's sound is play'd,
Like lightning gleams thy battle blade ;
Thy war-cry loudest strikes the ear
Of palsied foe with deadly fear.

The victor's wreath for thee they'll twine,
And music such as seems divine,
Shall spring from high-born minstrelsy—
Will it not wake a thought of me ?

When glittering stars in heaven are set,
And turret, wall, and minaret,
The moon hath tipt with silver light,—
I find thee absent, my loved knight.

I walk through silent glen and glade,
Where we together oft have stray'd,
And court our favourite resting-place—
There I have felt thy fond embrace.

But thou art gone ! My languid lyre
Hath lost its once elated fire,
Nor gives sweet sounds, but mournfully
Breathes, as it were in sighs, for thee.

Return, then—let me view thy face
Unchanged, and feel thy fond embrace :
The tuneful cadence of thy voice
Shall bid my drooping heart rejoice.

G. W.

THE CASE OF MR. ERSKINE, AT BOMBAY.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

18,

London, June 15th, 1828.

THE letters of 'Vindex,' in 'The Asiatic Journal' of April and June last, are so evidently intended to give a false impression of the proceedings of his Majesty's Court of Justice, at Bombay, in regard to Mr. Erskine, that I must request you will publish the whole judgment of the Court in that important case; which will enable those who feel an interest in the matter to draw their own conclusions from the facts therein detailed; and, as 'The Asiatic Journal' has admitted into its columns garbled and incorrect statements, in which some of the most material facts are suppressed, whilst others are alluded to in a manner calculated to mis-lead and deceive, I feel confident that a sense of what is due to public justice will at once induce you to comply with my request.

The abuses that had been going on in Mr. Erskine's office were brought to the notice of the Court, in the first instance, by a petition presented by one of the suitors in the Small Cause Court, complaining of extortions and injustice, to which the petitioner had been subjected. This petition, and others of a similar nature, were referred to Mr. Erskine, for his report upon them; but, so little satisfactory were his explanations on the subject, that his Native head clerk, Bappoo Ramjee, was examined on oath touching the frauds which were alleged by the petitioners to have taken place in Mr. Erskine's office. Bappoo Ramjee so grossly prevaricated in his examination, that he was committed to jail; but enough had been elicited from him to determine the Court to examine Mr. Erskine himself. It is most untrue, however, that Mr. Erskine was examined, in secret, by the Recorder, as 'Vindex' asserts. On the contrary, he was examined by the Court, consisting, at that time, of the Recorder, Mayor, and Aldermen; and, when his examinations were concluded, he was informed, by the Recorder, in presence of the Mayor and Aldermen, that they (the Judges) had come to the determination of dismissing him publicly from the situations he held under the Court; but that, if he thought he could explain his conduct to the satisfaction of a jury, that course was open to him; and, if he determined to adopt it, he would only be suspended from his offices until the issue of his trial was known.

Mr. Erskine at once declined the option thus afforded him of going before a jury, and the unanimous judgment of the Court was accordingly pronounced by the Recorder, at a Special Court, summoned for the purpose, and in presence of the other Judges, who were all in their places on the bench at the time. The important fact of Mr. Erskine having refused the option of a Trial by

Jury, was not noticed by the Court in giving judgment; but the omission is supplied by the author of 'The Case of Mr. Erskine,' in which publication that circumstance is mentioned. If Mr. Erskine had been put upon his trial before a jury, the evidence of Bappoo, as elicited in his examination, coupled with Mr. Erskine's own admissions, as recorded in the Court's judgment, must have ensured his conviction; or, if these could not have been received in evidence against him, (as to which I am not lawyer enough to determine,) there was the overwhelming testimony of hundreds of poor suitors in the Small Cause Court, whom he had plundered and oppressed without mercy, and who had petitioned the Court for redress against him.

The name of Mr. Elphinstone, at that time Governor of Bombay, is mentioned by 'Vindex,' and became necessarily connected with these proceedings, from the extraordinary line of conduct adopted by him on the occasion. At the period when Mr. Erskine was dismissed from the offices he held under the Court, he was Superintendent of Police; a situation of great trust and emolument, and to which he had been appointed by the Government; and it was considered, by the Court, as due to the Governor, to inform him of the grounds on which a person holding an office under Government had been dismissed from those he held under the Court, and the Recorder in consequence sent Mr. Elphinstone a copy of the Court's judgment against Mr. Erskine, with a note, in which he stated his reasons for doing so, and added that Mr. Erskine had declined the option of having his case decided by a jury. Mr. Elphinstone acknowledged and thanked the Recorder for his communication; and, in the following month, (the 30th of July, 1823,) a public meeting of the Literary Society was held, at which Mr. Elphinstone presided, and proposed a laudatory address to the same Mr. Erskine! The proceedings of that meeting appeared in the Bombay Government paper, 'The Courier,' on the Saturday following; and which I hope you will also publish, as they will account for the disgraceful opposition which was immediately thereafter shown to the proceedings of his Majesty's Court at Bombay, and the base attempts that were made to interfere with, and impede, the administration of Justice there; for, when the Governor had thus hoisted the banner of party, in opposition to the King's Court, it is not to be wondered at, that he found active and zealous partisans in many of those who were indebted to him for the official situations they then held, and dependent on his patronage for their further advancement. The address was carried unanimously, (for who would have ventured to say, 'No,' to a proposition of the Governor's?) and exhibits the disgraceful and degrading spectacle of the head of the Bombay Government, and * * *, subscribing themselves with sentiments of the truest respect and esteem (such are the concluding words of the address) to a public delinquent.

The second letter of 'Vindex,' published in 'The Asiatic Journal' for June, is a tissue of such unfounded and libellous assertions on the Court, that I scarcely know in what terms to notice it. It adverts to circumstances that took place at Bombay, after Mr. Erskine's dismissal, some of which would have been important, if they had been correctly stated. Vindex asserts, that no written rules, or table of fees, had ever been established, by which to regulate the proceedings and charges in the Small Cause Court; that 'the suitors also had never previously applied for a taxation of costs, and that, "in Mr. Erskine's case," the Recorder's Court framed instructions for the purpose, *ex post facto*, arbitrarily, &c.' All this is utterly untrue: a set of rules, and a table of fees for the Small Cause Court, had been framed by Sir William Syer, the first Recorder of Bombay; the latter were hung up in Mr. Erskine's office, and he was bound, under the solemn sanction of an oath, to be regulated by that table of fees in his charges. He was also bound, by one of the said rules, to account to the Court, on oath, when required, for all his charges and proceedings in the Small Cause Court; and it was under that very rule, that he was examined, *videlicet*, by the Judges. The unfortunate suitors complained loudly and justly by petition to the Court, after Mr. Erskine's dismissal, that, although they had always applied for a taxation of costs, it was invariably refused, and they were compelled to pay the bills which Mr. Erskine or his clerk presented, without being allowed to object to a single item, although they were shamefully overcharged in every instance.

The Court, in consequence, ordered a certain number of bills, which had been paid to Mr. Erskine, to be taken indiscriminately from the records of his office, and taxed by the master in Equity, which was done. I send herewith an official copy of the return to that order of the Court, and the result, as your readers will observe, is, that, on twenty one bills, (being the number thus taxed,) Mr. Erskine had charged and received one thousand eight hundred and thirty-two rupees, whilst he was only entitled, by the table of fees, to charge nine hundred and thirty rupees! I must also here remark, that the last bill in the list, No. 392, is that of the poor unfortunate widow, from whom he extorted ten rupees, (as particularly set forth in the judgment of the Court,) after having charged, and actually received from her, as appears by this return, three times as much as he was entitled to do. The Court, on seeing by this list the very serious extent to which Mr. Erskine had been plundering the public, immediately determined that all those who had been subjected to these disgraceful overcharges, should be allowed the opportunity of having their bills taxed, and the overcharge returned to them; and hence the orders issued by the Court to that effect. Some of the unfortunate suitors had their bills taxed and the overcharge returned; but it was soon discovered, that

some wealthy Natives were buying up Mr. Erskine's bills on speculation, and, on this being intimated to the Court, the further taxation of these bills was very properly put a stop to.

These are the facts (of which 'Vindex' pretends ignorance) connected with the taxation of the bills of costs; and will any one say, that, under the circumstances I have stated, the amount of the security exacted by the Court, before Mr. Erskine was permitted to leave the island, was too much? If the Court erred at all, it was in allowing such a delinquent to escape as he did, with comparative impunity.

I must again beg of you to insert the Court's judgment, and the list of taxed bills, both of which are (be it remembered) official copies of recorded documents, and must produce a conviction of the deep guilt of Mr. Erskine, in the mind of every one who reads them. I am, Sir, your most obedient servant,

JUSTITIA.

The Honourable the Court of the Recorder of Bombay, June the 18th, 1823.

At a Special Court summoned on this day,—Present: the Honourable Sir Edward West, Knight, Recorder; John Leckie, Esq., Mayor; William Page Ashburner, Benjamin Phillips, and Robert Wallace, Esqrs., Aldermen,—the following judgment of the Court was delivered by the Honourable Sir Edward West:

We have thought it right to convene a Special Court, for the purpose of publicly reprehending one of the officers of the Court for misconduct in his office. Some investigations have lately been made of the conduct of the Clerk of the Small Causes: had the result of those investigations been favourable to Mr. Erskine, his exculpation would necessarily have been public; the result having been unfavourable to him, it is equally necessary that that result, and the decision of the Court upon it, should be made public.

This is necessary, as well for the purpose of example, as for that of convincing the Native community that this Court will protect them from extortion and oppression; to convince them that this Court, the peculiar end and object of whose establishment is to protect them from fraud and oppression by others, will not so far forget itself, and the object of its institution, as to screen or permit fraud and corruption in its own offices, and within its own walls.

It was necessary to call a Special Court for this purpose, as by the constitution of this Court, a majority of the Judges, I mean the three Aldermen, relinquish their seats on Friday next, the first day of term; and, had we waited till that day, one set of Judges would have had to decide on evidence delivered before another set.

That the nature of the abuses which have been found to exist in Mr. Erskine's office may be fully understood, I shall state at some length the manner in which those abuses were discovered, and the investigations which have taken place in consequence of such discovery.

The first charge against Mr. Erskine is in a case, in which a woman of the name of Ruttunvow was the plaintiff, on the 15th of April last. A

petition was presented to me from this woman, in which she stated that she had received a judgment in the Small Cause Court, for 459 rupees; that the defendants had paid this sum into Mr. Erskine's office, but that she could not obtain it from the office, as the defendants had given a notice of motion for a new trial. On looking to the notice, I found it had been given too late, and, therefore, made order on Mr. Erskine to pay the woman her money.

In this petition it was stated that Mr. Erskine had compelled the plaintiff to pay the defendant's cost before he would permit her to sue out a writ for the recovery of the damages. When first I read the petition, I supposed the statement to have been a mistake of the petitioner. Hearing, however, a short time afterwards, of some other irregularities in the office, I again referred to the petition, and sent for the petitioner. Her son attended me; and, on examining him, I found not only, as was afterwards admitted by Mr. Erskine, that the statement in the petition was correct, but the son added, that Mr. Erskine had deducted ten rupees from the sum due to the plaintiff, before he paid it to her. His statement was this: 'I went,' said he, 'to Mr. Erskine's office, and his clerk told me, that Mr. Erskine's charges were 110 2 0 rupees, and that, after I had paid that, he would give me a notice on the defendant, and, when he brought the money, he would pay it to me. I afterwards went to Mr. Erskine's office: Mr. Erskine told me, When your mother comes and gets a receipt for it, she shall have it. I said, it was not the custom of widow ladies, of my caste, to come out. Mr. Erskine carried the money, and gave it to my mother; and for that I paid him a fee of ten rupees, or going to her house to carry the amount. My mother was a poor woman, and offered five rupees; but Mr. Erskine said what was his fee he took. My mother said, I have several children, and I have only seven rupees a month to feed them. She signed the paper. I went several times for that, to get a bill for the ten rupees' fee. Sometimes, Mr. Erskine was not there; at other times, I do not know whether he was there or not. Once I saw Mr. Erskine in the room; but his clerk would not let me go in to speak to him.' This statement about the ten rupees I could not conceive could possibly be true, but, nevertheless, considered it my duty to examine the witness in the presence of Mr. Erskine; and accordingly, on the 13th of May, one of the Aldermen (Dr. Philips) and myself being in Court, we went into a private room with Mr. Erskine, and examined the witness on oath. That no other person might hear the charge, Dr. Philips was as good as to act as interpreter, and I took down the evidence myself. The witness was examined, and told precisely the same story as before; and Mr. Erskine, on being asked what he had to say, admitted the fact, and said he took the ten rupees as a fee for going to the plaintiff's house. I asked him whether he could point out any such fee in the table of fees which I handed to him; he allowed he could not. On what ground Mr. Erskine can attempt to excuse this, I do not know. I have heard from him no attempt at excuse, though he has had many opportunities given to him for that purpose. As to any justification of his conduct, it is out of the question, as there is no such fee allowed by the table of fees. I confess I cannot understand by what motive he could have been actuated in withholding, from a poor woman, appealing to him as she did, stating that she had several children, and only seven rupees a month to feed them, that was to her so large a sum. I do not understand how he could have so far forgotten his feelings as a gentleman, and his principles as an honest man.

Thus much for this case: but I cannot omit, before I entirely quit it, to reprobate the very improper practice, admitted by Mr. Erskine to prevail in his office, (though unsanctioned by any rule,) of making the plaintiff, who has recovered a judgment, pay the defendant's costs, before he is permitted to avail himself of his judgment, or to sue out execution against the defendant. The plaintiff is, of course, liable for his own costs; but by what rule of law or justice is it, that, after he has recovered a judgment, he is compelled to pay the defendant's costs. Look to the consequences of such a practice: should the defendant be insolvent, or should he abscond, or secrete himself, or, in short, should any thing happen to prevent the plaintiff from recovering his costs and damage against the defendant, the whole of the defendant's costs must fall upon the plaintiff, in addition to his own. The motive of this practice is much more easily understood than the reason, I am sorry to say; but I fear that the motive was the same as in the case of the ten rupees: I mean, again to squage as much as could be squaged from the miserable, hard earnings of that poor class of people who usually apply for redress to the Small Cause Court.

The second charge against Mr. Erskine is, the having charged, and received from the suitors, one whole rupee for each seal, instead of half a rupee, the fee paid to the sealer.

A few weeks after my arrival here, I found, from the rules of Court, that half a rupee only was to be charged by the sealer, for every seal affixed to proceedings in the Small Cause Court, but that the sealer was receiving one whole rupee. I inquired of Mr. Woodhouse, the late sealer, the reason of the practice: he told me that one rupee had always been received, but did not know whether the rule had been altered. I then referred to Mr. Sandwith, as being one of the oldest practitioners of the Court: he could give me very little information, excepting that it had been received for many years. Finding, however, no authorised alteration of the original rule, I desired the sealer to receive but half a rupee; and, consequently, on the 20th of March, his fees for seals on proceedings out of the Small Cause Court, were reduced to half a rupee for each seal. Many weeks after this, on some day between the 6th and 20th of May, (I cannot charge my memory with the precise day,) I had occasion to send for Mr. Erskine's book of fees, and was very much surprised, on examining the book, (which I had taken some pains to understand, and had at last mastered in spite of its being so illegible, as Mr. Erskine admits it in his examination to be,) to find, that, up to the last charge made in the book, which charge was dated the 6th of May last, a whole rupee had continued to be charged on each seal. I mentioned this to Mr. Erskine's clerk, who immediately admitted it. As soon as I saw Mr. Erskine, I, of course, mentioned it to him; I mentioned it also to him twice afterwards. On these occasions he said he was not aware of it, and, if it was so, it was very improper; but on no one of these occasions did he say he would investigate, or had investigated, the subject; or that he would discharge the clerk, if it should turn out to be the case, or any thing of the kind. Now I would ask if this was the conduct of a correct man, jealous of his honour and his character? Would not such a one immediately have exclaimed, 'I am shocked to hear this: I will immediately inquire into it, and take care to discharge my clerk if it be so;' or would not such a person even have requested the Court to investigate the matter, in order to clear his own character from suspicion of participation in the fraud? I will now read Mr. Erskine

own examination, when called upon to answer this charge.—Examination read.

June 13th, 1823.

Present: the Honourable Sir Edward West, Knight, Recorder; John Leckie, Esq., Mayor; William Ashburner, Esq., Alderman.

William Erskine, Esq., sworn. Examined by the Court.

RECORDER.—I mentioned to you, on the 20th of May last, in Court, the fact that your clerk had been charging one rupee for each seal, whilst he paid only half a rupee to the sealer. I mentioned it also, I believe, two other times.

MR. ERSKINE.—I think it must have been on that day, and I think you must have mentioned it two other times.

RECORDER.—Have you inquired into the fact?

MR. ERSKINE.—I think your Lordship did not mention the number of the cause, and, as you were making some investigations, I thought it would be interfering between the Court and Bappoo, and might appear to be altering the state of circumstances.

RECORDER.—I mentioned it to you, not as a single instance, but as a thing which had gone on for some time.

MR. ERSKINE.—I thought your Lordship had mentioned it as in one cause.

RECORDER.—I mentioned it as a thing which had continued ever since the reduction of the fee of the sealer.

MR. ERSKINE.—I did not understand it on a general sense.

[Here the Recorder referred to Mr. Leckie, who had been in Court when the Recorder spoke to Mr. Erskine about the seals. Mr. Leckie agreed with the Recorder, that he had mentioned to Mr. Erskine the charging of one rupee for a seal as a practice which had been going on some time.]

RECORDER.—Are you prepared now to say, Mr. Erskine, whether the fact has been so or not?

MR. ERSKINE.—It will appear in the bills of particulars, which are in your Lordship's possession; (book containing bills of particulars, called 'Book of Items,' shown to Mr. Erskine, who examines it;): up to the 6th of May last, as far as appears from this book, one rupee has always been charged for the seal at the time the notice was given. I think, either by Mr. Sandwith, or on the authority of Mr. Sandwith, that no more than half a rupee was to be given to the sealer. I called Bappoo, and desired him to be careful that no more was given or charged.

RECORDER.—Some of these bills (showing Mr. Erskine the bills in 'The Book of Items,' in which the rupee was charged for the seal) of course have been paid to you, Mr. Erskine?

MR. ERSKINE.—Some of them must have been paid to me. I have brought the books; (produces cash-book and examines it;): yes, in No. 131, the costs appear to have been received.

RECORDER.—And, I suppose, in many others too?

MR. ERSKINE.—Yes, in all probability. There is another (still examining cash-book) in No. 116, where the costs have been received, and in 105, in No. 132, the same seems to have been the case, and in 139.

RECORDER.—Do you not look over the items which compose the charge, (that is, bill,) before you take the money.

MR. ERSKINE.—I have not looked over each item of the bills. I have been accustomed to trust to the accuracy of the clerk in the office, to whom the duty belongs of making the bills and included the sum total

in the judgment, on being assured it had been made up in the usual form.

RECORDER.—This was leaving a great deal to the clerk, and he might be cheating you, or cheating the public.

MR. ERSKINE.—It certainly was very improper conduct in me, and I am fully sensible of it, and regret it extremely.

RECORDER.—Mr. Erskine, you are confident you told Bappoo not to charge more than half a rupee?

MR. ERSKINE.—I am certain I mentioned it: I am confident I charged Bappoo, at the time I reduced the fee to the sealer, not to charge to or receive more from the clients. [Some questions were here put to Mr. Erskine, with respect to the number of cases in which the whole rupee for seals had been improperly received by him, and he says:] For all the summonses which have been sued out between the 20th of March, and the 6th of May last, and in which judgment has been obtained, and the money received, one rupee has been received for the seal.

This examination having been read over to Mr. Erskine, he wishes to add the following particulars:—

The Honourable the Recorder did, upon one or more occasions, say to me, that it appeared the seal had continued to be charged at one rupee after the reduction to half a rupee. I mentioned the circumstance to Bappoo, and asked if it was possible? He confessed it did appear to be the case. I asked him what had induced him to make the charge, how he had suffered it to enter the account? He could give no reason, but said that he had forgotten it.

16th June, 1823.

Present: Sir Edward West, the Mayor, and all the Aldermen.

RECORDER.—I will now, again, call your attention to what I mentioned to you in Court, on the 20th of May, that one rupee had been charged (for each seal) instead of half a rupee. Was it, upon recollection, a general observation, as on a fact going on for some time, or as a single instance.

MR. ERSKINE.—In that case, my Lord, I understood it to have been a general observation.

RECORDER.—Do you remember, on the 11th of June, my mentioning the fact about the seal, the fact of the subpoena, and about the ten rupees in Ruttonvow's case; and that I said that I must necessarily bring them before the Court?

MR. ERSKINE.—I think it is probable that your Lordship mentioned them. I have not quite a distinct recollection as to the subpoena, but I think it was also mentioned. The seal and the ten rupees were certainly mentioned.

RECORDER.—Did not you, Mr. Erskine, on that occasion, and on a former occasion, (when the improper charge of the seal was mentioned,) say that you were not aware of it, and that, if it were so, it was very improper?

MR. ERSKINE.—On the former occasion, I did. I have no recollection of saying so on the last occasion.

RECORDER.—Did you, on the last occasion, admit that it had been so?

MR. ERSKINE.—I do not recollect admitting it: I was a good deal confused and agitated at what had fallen from your Lordship, and have not a distinct recollection of it.

RECORDER.—Did you mention to me (on that occasion) that you had told Bappoo of it, and that he had admitted it, and said it was a mistake?

MR. ERSKINE.—I don't recollect telling your lordship so, except at the time of my examination (on Friday last): I might have done so, but I have no recollection of it. Bappoo confessed it to me only a short time before the examination took place.

RECORDER.—Do you remember about the day Bappoo mentioned it to you?

MR. ERSKINE.—I don't remember exactly; but, to the best of my recollection, it was three or four days before.

RECORDER.—Had you mentioned it before to Bappoo?

MR. ERSKINE.—Yes, I had.

RECORDER.—Did he confess it before?

MR. ERSKINE.—He did not.

RECORDER.—Why did you not, between the period of my first mentioning it to you, on the 20th May, and the time of Bappoo confessing it, institute an investigation, to see if it were so, or not? A single glance of any page of your old book would have shown whether it was so, or not?

MR. ERSKINE.—It was my duty to have done so, but (I confess) I was, during all that time, in a very feverish state of feeling, in consequence of the inquiry and investigation that were going on, and the papers that were asked for, which prevented me from setting about it as I ought to have done.

RECORDER.—In your former examination, on Friday last, why did you not, having ascertained from Bappoo that the charge was true, at once acknowledge the truth, instead of referring me to the book of particulars, (meaning the old book of items,) which you have acknowledged to be almost illegible?

MR. ERSKINE.—I understood your lordship to mention two different instances, in the first part of the examination. I, perhaps, by mistake, supposed your lordship to allude to a particular instance; in which, as I understood, you had ascertained that one rupee had been received instead of half a rupee. I was not acquainted with the No. of that case, and had not learned from Bappoo whether it had been charged or not, on which account I referred to the bill of particulars. In the latter part of the examination, on observing my mistake, I mentioned it generally.

RECORDER.—How could that be so, when, before I put the question, I referred to Mr. Leckie, whether he understood my observation in Court to be general, or not, and then put the question, No. 5, on which you referred me to the Bill of Particulars. (Question, No. 5, read.)

MR. ERSKINE.—I do not recollect the circumstance: there must have been some confusion or misunderstanding in my mind.

These facts, then, appear, from Mr. Erskine's own admission—

First,—That the improper fee of one rupee was charged for the whole period between the 20th March and 6th May last.

Secondly,—That this improper charge was regularly entered in Mr. Erskine's own book—the only book in which the particulars of costs appeared. And,

Lastly,—That, in all the cases in which an authorised fee had been paid, the money was actually received by Mr. Erskine.

This, I am sorry to say, is not all: I cannot but add, that his conduct has been neither straight forward nor candid. Instead of giving every facility to the investigation, every obstacle has been thrown in the way of it. I could scarcely ever get a direct answer to any question put to him, as the examination which I have read will show; and, when I asked for the books in order to examine the costs, I received this book of hiero-

glyphics : and here, I cannot but remark the difference between this book and the one kept by Mr. Erskine's predecessors.

[Here the books were shown.]

We now come to the third and last charge against Mr. Erskine—that of charging the suitors with fees for subpoenas, when no subpoenas had issued.

On the 20th May last, the Mayor, Mr. Leckie, and myself, were sitting to hear small causes, a witness was called for a defendant; the witness not appearing, I inquired whether he had been subpoenaed, in order to call him upon his subpoena. Mr. Erskine and his clerks all said the witness had not been subpoenaed. After a little more inquiry, however, another witness of the defendant's produced this ticket:

[Ticket read.]

'By virtue of writ of subpoena, directed and herewith shown unto you, you are to appear in this Honourable Court of the Recorder of Bombay, on Tuesday, the 20th day of May, at ten o'clock in the forenoon, to testify the truth in a cause then and there to be tried, between Wittoo Brother and Executor, Plaintiff; and

Defendant, on the part of the said Defendant,

under pain of 200 rupees. Dated this 19th day of May.

(Signed,)

'WILLIAM ERSKINE.'

(*In his own handwriting*.)

As soon as this was produced, I directed the other witness to be called on the subpoena, on which Mr. Erskine admitted that no subpoena had been issued. I asked him how this could be, when he had issued the subpoena ticket? He said he had signed it by mistake, and had given directions that it should not be served. I carried the inquiry no further at that time; but, some time afterwards, I believe on the 9th or 10th of June, having sent for Mr. Erskine's books again, to see how his charges were going on, two books were sent to me—the old book of items, which I have before mentioned, and a new book of items, kept according to directions which I had given, in a more legible manner. I was much surprised to observe, in the new book of items, a charge for notice to witnesses in all the cases prior to the 20th May last, the day on which I had discovered the irregularity about the subpoena. My suspicions were, of course, excited by this; as I never, in the course of my practice, nor any one else, heard of a notice to bring witnesses into Court; and, though the first bill in the new book was dated the 13th of May last, I suspected, as afterwards turned out to be the case, that the book had been commenced since the 20th of May last, and that the book had been framed purposely to meet my eye, and to prevent my asking for the subpoenas in those cases. I will now read Mr. Erskine's explanation of this part of the case. [Examination read.]

Examination continued.

RECORDER.—Was not this ticket (showing the ticket in No. 564) produced by a witness as having been served upon him, no subpoena having been sealed?

MR. ERSKINE.—Yes, it was. The circumstances under which it happened, were these: The notice is dated the 19th of May, and the Court was the next day. I had signed two or three copies of subpoena tickets in this cause, and had given directions for a subpoena to issue a little past four. One of the clerks put the subpoena into my hand for signature. I sent for Bappoo, and complained of his practice of being so late in issuing the subpoenas, which made the service so uncertain;

and, in this case, it was not probable the seal could be got, as it was past the office hours. I did not sign the subpoena, and desired him not to issue the tickets, as he could not serve them without showing the seal of the Court.

RECORDER.—Then do you know how it came to be served?

MR. ERSKINE.—I only know it as far as it was explained to your lordship in Court by the Clerks. I was not aware of the irregularity till the ticket was produced in Court. I was very much surprised at it. I was the more hurt, as I had repeatedly ordered the subpoenas to be issued on the Saturday before.

RECORDER.—How came you, Mr. Erskine, to sign the ticket without having the sealed subpoena before you?

MR. ERSKINE.—When there are a number of causes in Court, there will sometimes be a hundred, or more than a hundred, subpoena tickets alone, and double the number of notices. Sometimes the parties come to the office before the Clerks leave it, to put off the trial; and, therefore, the subpoenas are not sealed till after the tickets are signed, and the Clerk is going away to execute them.

RECORDER.—Are you not aware, Mr. Erskine, that by that practice your Clerks are enabled to defraud the sealer as much as they please?

MR. ERSKINE.—If it enters into the books of the office, the improper fee would go to the Clerk, as there is no separate fee taken from the Client on that account.

RECORDER.—Do you, or do you not, know it has been the practice in your office to serve tickets, which profess to be the copies of a subpoena, without any subpoenas being sealed?

MR. ERSKINE.—I certainly was not aware of it until an instance of it was pointed out by your lordship. I have several times mentioned that there are too few subpoenas in defended cases to force the parties to appear before the Court, instead of notices to the witnesses, and desired it to be changed.

RECORDER.—Did you ever issue notices to witnesses instead of subpoenas?

MR. ERSKINE.—Yes, it is the ordinary practice in *ex parte* cases; and Sir William Evans said he thought that subpoenas ought not to be taken out in defended cases, unless the parties wished it. The charge for a notice to witnesses is half a rupee.

RECORDER.—Did you ever issue notices in defended cases? I suppose, of course, you must have done so, from your having complained of there being too few subpoenas in defended cases.

MR. ERSKINE.—I think I must, but I do not recollect any individual instances; but I think I must. What made me complain of the want of subpoenas in defended cases, were some instances in which I wished to have called the witnesses on the subpoenas, and found that none had been issued.

RECORDER.—Then, can you have any doubt that notices have issued in defended cases?

MR. ERSKINE.—What made me doubt was this, that, in some instances in which a subpoena or notice ought to have issued, I do not find among the papers either a notice or subpoena, which made me afraid that some irregularities must have arisen in those cases.

RECORDER.—Did you, in consequence of what Sir William Evans told you, give any directions that notices should issue instead of subpoenas?

MR. ERSKINE.—I gave directions that in all cases of importance

subpœnas should issue, but not in *ex parte* cases, unless asked for; nor in cases where the parties undertook to bring their own witnesses.

RECORDER.—That is no answer to my question.

[Question repeated.]

MR. ERSKINE.—No, I don't recollect giving directions that notices should issue instead of subpœnas.

RECORDER.—Then how did what Sir William Evans told you account for there being so few subpœnas?

MR. ERSKINE.—I imagined that, if subpœnas did not issue, the only other way of calling witnesses was by notice.

RECORDER.—(Showing witness the books of items.) Do you find a single case in this book of a notice to witnesses being charged instead of a subpœna? If you can find one, point it out.

MR. ERSKINE.—(Having examined the book.) I do not observe any such: it certainly is extraordinary.

RECORDER.—(Showing a bill, No. 43, to Mr. Erskine.) In this bill, subpœnas and seals are charged twice, one for the plaintiff, and one for the defendant: did any subpœnas issue in those cases?

MR. ERSKINE.—I cannot find either subpœnas, seals, or notices.

RECORDER.—Look at the page of the book of items dated 6th May, 1823, where several subpœnas and seals are charged. Can you find in the office a single subpœna and seal?

[Time was given to send for some papers from the office, in order to answer this question, and in the meantime the examination was continued.]

RECORDER.—Did you direct that, in this new book of items, notices should be charged in any case instead of subpœnas, up to the date of the 20th May, when I discovered that no subpœna had issued?

MR. ERSKINE.—I did give those directions, because, in looking over the papers, I could not find either notices or subpœnas, and therefore took the lowest charge.

RECORDER.—Was the book commenced on the 13th May, which is the date of the first bill in it, or was it not commenced till after the 20th May, the day that I discovered that no subpœna had been issued in one particular case?

MR. ERSKINE.—This book was not begun to be made up until after I had seen your lordship on the 20th. The reason was, that your lordship had complained of the fees. I wished the charges to be made as much as possible in conformity with the table of fees, and, therefore, I did not allow the items to be entered, until I had taken the opinion of your lordship as to some fees about which I was not certain.

RECORDER.—From what documents was that book made up?

MR. ERSKINE.—From the papers in each particular cause. There is no entry made of the particulars of the costs in any book except in the book of items. The costs in long cases which are tried are not made out any where but in the book of items.

RECORDER.—Will you undertake to say that these notices to witnesses—(pointing to the notices mentioned in the new book)—were not tickets professing to be copies of subpœnas?

MR. ERSKINE.—I cannot undertake to say. I have great reason to suspect they might be from what has taken place. Upon recollection, I could not undertake to swear that notices to witnesses were issued in *ex parte* cases.

RECORDER.—Can you undertake to say that in any single instance a notice has issued to witnesses to bring them into court instead of a ticket?

Mr. **ERSKINE**.—I could not swear to that from personal recollection.

RECORDER. I will ask you whether you do not see the impropriety of signing tickets which profess to be copies of subpœnas, before the subpœna is sealed and issued?

Mr. **ERSKINE**.—I certainly do, my Lord. I ought to have kept them, if I signed them, in my possession, until the subpœna was sealed.

RECORDER.—Is it proper at all to sign that which professes to be a copy of the Court's mandate, before that mandate issues, and thus give an opportunity to others of committing the greatest possible contempt of Court?

Mr. **ERSKINE**.—It certainly is not. The subpœnas are printed, and the names of the witnesses inserted; but it is not regular to sign tickets until the subpœna is sealed.—(The papers which Mr. Erskine sent for, in order to answer question 24th, were here produced. Mr. Erskine examines them, and states:—) In No. 364, three subpœnas are charged two rupees each, and but one is produced. In No. 4, two subpœnas are charged, and none to be found. In No. 101, no subpœna to be found, and two are charged. In No. 572, two subpœnas are charged, and none found. In No. 130, none produced, or found, and two charged. In No. 591, one charged, and none found. In all, twelve subpœnas charged, but only one found.

After some discussion and investigation, it is admitted by Mr. Erskine, that, from the cases which have already been taken out, and upon an investigation of the books, &c., that, since the present Sealer's admission, it has, in nine cases out of ten at least, been the practice to charge for subpœnas and seals where none were issued or sealed. 'I certainly was not aware of the fact, (says Mr. Erskine,) until it was mentioned by the Honourable the Recorder, although I had noticed and complained of the fewness of the subpœnas in those causes that were in Court as before-mentioned.'

RECORDER.—The 29th rule of Court requires that the Clerk shall, at the end of every month, deliver into Court, for their inspection, all books kept by him relating to the business, &c., and an account of all the fees received by him; I wish upon this to ask the question, whether the only book of items of costs kept is such as can be understood without considerable labour, and without mastering the general course of the items of charges,—the items being merely set down with initial letters, and many of those unintelligible.

Mr. **ERSKINE**.—I do not think that it can. It is certainly kept in a very illegible way.

RECORDER.—Have you now put up in the Small Cause Court a copy of the table of fees, in the English and Guzeratt characters?

Mr. **ERSKINE**.—Yes, I have, in a conspicuous part.

RECORDER.—I wish to ask whether the business of the Small Cause Court has not been left almost entirely to Bappoo to conduct?

Mr. **ERSKINE**.—During the last three years, from my absence from Bombay, the state of my health, and various circumstances, I was not able to pay that attention to the details of the office which they certainly required; and, during that time, the chief management of the office was in Bappoo.

RECORDER.—What is Bappoo's salary?

Mr. **ERSKINE**.—Twenty rupees a month, and a half rupee for each cause filed. It would average about forty-five rupees a month, or a little more.

Continuation of Examination on the 16th of June, before the Recorder, the Mayor, and all the Aldermen, as to the Subpœnas.

RECORDER.—Do you remember, on the 11th of June, my asking you whether any of the notices mentioned in the new book of items had issued, or were to be found; and that I had sent Bappoo for them some hours before, and he had not returned?

MR. ERSKINE.—I do not recollect. I do not think it likely I could have given you a distinct, or a precise answer to it.

RECORDER.—Then, can you tell me how that note came to be sent, (a note shown to Mr. Erskine, dated 11th of June,) which was signed by Mr. Erskine, and contained these words: Mr. Erskine has looked over the papers in No. 50, 54, 59, and 60, and does not find in any of them notice to witnesses?

MR. ERSKINE.—When I called upon your Lordship, in consequence of Bappoo's not having returned with some papers for which you had sent him, you desired that I would bring, if I could find them, the notices in the four first causes in the new book of items.

RECORDER.—Did not I ask you at the time, if you could find the notices (mentioned) in the new book of items?

MR. ERSKINE.—I do not recollect that you did, but I remember being sent to look for them.

RECORDER.—Did you go and look for them?

MR. ERSKINE.—I did.

RECORDER.—You did not tell me before you went to look for them that they were not to be found.

MR. ERSKINE.—No, I did not.

RECORDER.—How is this reconcileable with the account which you have given, that, when you directed the new book of items to be made up about the 20th of May, you directed notices to be charged instead of subpœnas, because you could find neither notices nor subpœnas, and notices were the lowest charge. According to this account, you had then (i. e. 20th of May) ascertained that notices were not to be found; and yet, three weeks afterwards, you think it necessary to go to your office to look for them?

MR. ERSKINE.—I did not recollect the number of causes: it was not in my recollection that they were wanting in every case.

RECORDER.—Did not you look in every case to see if there was a subpœna before you directed a notice to be put down?

MR. ERSKINE.—I think I made up two or three of the bills myself, and directed that, in the others, where there were no subpœnas, notices should be inserted, where the service to witnesses had really taken place.

RECORDER.—Then, having given those directions that notices should be inserted only where subpœnas were not to be found, did you not immediately know, on seeing notice entered in that book, (meaning the new book of items,) that no subpœna had issued in that case?

MR. ERSKINE.—I thought it possible that there might be notices to witnesses in some of the cases. Since the examination on Friday last, I have looked through a greater number of cases, and do not find any notices to call witnesses into Court; from which I am apprehensive that the issuing of subpœna-tickets, without subpœnas, may have existed to a considerable extent; in two or three cases I find subpœna-tickets not served.

RECORDER.—Am I to understand you, that you have not found a single notice to call witnesses into Court?

MR. ERSKINE.—Not as far as I have searched.

The same facts then again appear in this case as in the last,—namely, that a fraud to a considerable extent has been committed, and that it has been committed also for Mr. Erskine's benefit; for it again appears that the fraudulent charge for subpoenas has been brought to account in Mr. Erskine's book, and the money actually received by him. In addition to these facts, there is, I am sorry to say, no small degree of evasion and contradiction in the accounts which Mr. Erskine gives of the transaction. His account of what he calls the *mistake* about the subpoena in Court, differs from the account he gives in his examination on the former occasion; when asked why he signed the subpoena-ticket not having the subpoena before him, he said it was by mistake, (and that he directed the subpoena not to be served. On the former occasion he says, that he was not aware of the subpoena not having been sued out till the cause was called on in Court,) and that it was his *practice* to sign subpoena-tickets before any subpoena was sued out. Again, he endeavours to justify the entries of notices to witnesses in the new book of items, and to account for the fewness of the subpoenas, by saying that it was the ordinary practice to issue notices instead of subpoenas in undefended cases; and that Sir William Evans had directed them to be served even in defended cases. Yet, on further examination, he admits that he has no recollection of a single instance of a notice to witnesses having issued, nor can he, after search, find such a thing as a notice among the records of the Court. The result of these cases is, that Mr. Erskine himself gives an opportunity to his clerks, by signing the subpoena-ticket before the subpoenas are sued out, to commit the fraud; the fraud is actually committed, and Mr. Erskine receives the profit of it.

These are the facts upon which the Court is to decide as to their proceedings against Mr. Erskine. The Court might certainly, in this case, proceed summarily to punish Mr. Erskine for his misconduct as an officer of the Court, by fine or imprisonment. The issuing subpoena-tickets without subpoenas, is alone such a contempt of Court as would justify such proceedings.

The Court, however, will not punish Mr. Erskine otherwise than by dismissal from his offices; nor will the Court say whether Mr. Erskine be guilty or not of a voluntary participation in the profits of these frauds and extortions, as the case may possibly yet come before a Jury, and it would not be proper to anticipate what the verdict of a Jury might be. Without, however, pronouncing upon this, it is clear there is more than amply sufficient to call upon the Court to dismiss Mr. Erskine from all the offices he holds under it. There is abundant evidence of a carelessness about the interests of the public, as far as they are connected with his offices, and of the grossest and most criminal negligence, which, in the head of a department, always most culpable in this country, becomes criminal, as it is well known that the least relaxation on the part of the head of any department, where Native clerks are employed, opens the door to extortion, peculation, and all the train of fraud and corruption.

The Court are unanimously of opinion, that Mr. Erskine should be dismissed from the two offices which he holds under the Court, of Master in Equity and Clerk of the Small Cause Court. It is ordered, therefore, that Mr. Erskine be dismissed, and he is hereby dismissed, from these offices.

(A true Copy.)

AL. FERRIER, Recorder.

LITERARY SOCIETY.

A MEETING of the Literary Society of Bombay was held at their rooms on Wednesday last, and was attended by the following Gentlemen.

President, the Honourable M. Elphinstone ;	
Vice-President, the Venerable the Archdeacon.	
Mr. Wedderburn,	Mr. Gordon,
Mr. Henderson,	Lieut.-Col. Hunter Blair,
Mr. Farish,	Mr. Kemball,
Mr. Norris,	Mr. M ^r Leod,
Captain Bruce,	Dr. Sproule,
Mr. B. Noton,	Mr. Fawcett,
Mr. Malcolm,	Lieut. Colonel Shuldhani,
Mr. Elliot,	Mr. Hadow,
Lieut. Waddington,	Lieut. Robinson,
Mr. Ogilvy,	Mr. Prinsep,
Mr. J. R. Steuart,	Dr. Brydon,
Mr. Ritchie,	Mr. G. Noton.
Mr. Bruce,	

Major Kennedy, Secretary

After the usual business of the Meeting had been gone through, the Honourable the President adverted to the very important benefits which the Society had derived from the well-known qualifications and abilities of Mr. Erskine, one of the Vice-Presidents lately returned to England, and from his unwearied attention to promote its prosperity, and proposed that the following letter of thanks should in consequence be addressed to Mr. Erskine. The motion having been seconded by the Venerable the Archdeacon, in a short but impressive speech, it was unanimously resolved, that the proposed letter shall be transmitted by the Secretary to Mr. Erskine.

To W. Erskine, Esq., Vice-President of the Bombay Literary Society.

SIR,—Your unexpected return to your native country has prevented the Literary Society of Bombay from expressing to you, previous to your departure, the high sense that it entertains of the important benefits which you have conferred on it. One of the original Members by whom it was instituted in 1804, you became the Secretary, and it is to your unremitting and judicious exertions in that situation to which the formation and prosperity of the Society must be principally ascribed. By the kindness, also, with which you have assisted in preparing its Transactions for the press, and in contributing to them papers so distinguished by their learning, research, and elegance of style, you have given to that work an interest and a value which it would not otherwise have possessed. But not in these respects alone has your influence proved beneficial to literature. For your intimate acquaintance with classical, modern, and oriental literature, your sound judgment, and your correct and cultivated taste, have enabled you to afford to others that information which is so often requisite in this country, and to point out to them the studies and pursuits to which their attention might be most advantageously directed. At the same time, the readiness and indulgence with which such assistance has always been given, can only be equalled by the unassuming manner and the urbanity with which opinions the most instructive were invariably communicated.

That the loss of a person distinguished by such eminent qualifications and abilities can ever be replaced, is scarcely to be expected. But the regret which the Society experiences on this occasion is diminished by

the hope that the interests of literature will be materially promoted by your now being relieved from the interruptions of official business. That, then, your constitution may be re-invigorated by your return to your native country, and that you may enjoy undisturbed happiness for many years in the bosom of your family and in the solace of literary pursuits, are the sincere wishes of a Society, by whom you will ever be remembered with sentiments of the truest respect and esteem.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient Servant,

VANS KENNEDY, Sec. to the Bombay Lit. Soc.

Bombay Literary Society's Rooms,
July 30th, 1823.

It was further unanimously Resolved; on the Motion of the Venerable the Archdeacon, seconded by Mr. J. R. Stuart, that Mr. Erskine shall be requested to sit for his picture on his arrival in England, at the expense of the Society, for the purpose of its being placed in the Rooms of the Society.

List of Bills of Costs of the late Clerk of the Small Causes, taken indiscriminately, and taxed by W. Fenwick, Esq., Master in Equity, pursuant to Order of Court.

Nos. of Causes.	Titles of the Causes.	Amount of Costs paid.			Amount allowed Taxation.			Amount to be paid back to the Suitors.		
472	Cassey, D., &c. v. Kesowjee, K., &c.	132	0	0	84	3	0	47	1	0
188	Shobaram, M., v. Meea, D., &c.	95	3	0	72	0	0	23	3	0
602	Navulshaw, G., v. Ambabae, Widow	90	3	0	58	0	0	32	3	0
635	Purdesb, C., v. Gowrea, M.	82	2	0	40	2	0	42	0	0
657	Dewjee, K., v. Tanoo, S. K.	95	3	0	73	1	0	22	2	0
660	Nathoo, J., v. Shamjee, M.	110	2	0	69	1	0	71	1	0
196	Annajee, L., &c., v. Dewjee, B. G.	80	3	0	35	2	0	45	1	0
201	Manowjee, P., &c., v. Bnewrey, Widow	76	2	0	39	3	0	36	3	0
255	Aga R. bin M. B., v. Vukutchund, D., &c.	96	2	0	38	3	0	57	3	0
213	Macockjee, N. W., &c. v. Merwanjee, N.	65	0	0	36	0	0	29	0	0
535	Ranjee, R., v. Ruttonbae, Widow	112	1	0	51	1	0	61	0	0
556	Hormazjee, T., v. Khooshall, G.	70	3	0	30	3	0	40	0	0
626	Ragowjee, R., v. Cursetjee, B.	98	2	0	52	0	0	46	2	0
43	Esmall, C., &c., v. Hassum, S. O.	102	2	0	50	3	0	51	3	0
87	Dewa, D., v. Bellajee, K., &c.	91	0	0	32	1	0	58	3	0
171	Patnabae, Widow, v. Sumal, M. M.	80	2	0	30	1	0	50	1	0
457	Ameed, H., v. Mahomed, S., &c.	45	2	0	19	0	0	26	2	0
572	Dewalibae, Widow, v. Madow, B. S.	46	0	0	24	0	0	22	0	0
101	Khooshaldass, R., v. Dewsunker, M.	47	3	0	21	3	0	26	0	0
116	Blaskerjee, B., &c., v. Kesow, W.	45	1	0	24	3	0	20	2	0
392	Ruttonbae, A. J., v. Rustomjee, M., &c.	136	0	0	45	3	0	90	1	0
Total Rupees		1832	00	00	930	1	00	901	3	00

NOTE.—The highest number being 660, from among so many, at the least, the above twenty-one causes must have been selected; and, as it may safely be assumed that the series of numbers was for one year only, (the annual number of causes is at present much greater,) we have thus the fairest criterion of the rate of extortion, and may form a tolerably correct estimate of its amount.

ADVERTISEMENT FOR A WIFE.

[The following appears in a Madras paper, and has sufficient merit to bear transplanting.]

*Spinsters, attend ! ! I want a wife,
 Young, passing rich, and pretty,
 A good companion for this life,
 Accomplished, sharp and witty.
 Good tempered she must be of course,
 Take all things in their true lights,
 She must n't be a shrew, nor cross,
 Or what good folks call 'new lights.'
 Her figure must be small and good,
 Say nought about her riches—
 But, let me well be understood,
 She shall not wear the breeches.
 Must play on the piano forte,
 Excel among the dancers,
 And know quadrilles of every sort,
 Scotch, English, and the Lancers.
 There's one thing I'd well nigh forgot,
 I hope she'll have the sense
 To be contented with her lot,
 And not be much expense.
 Must keep my house both neat and snug,
 Obey me to the letter,
 And, can she make a glass of Mug,
 Why then, 'tis all the better.
 She must n't mind a march, or two,
 Nor grumble at hot weather :
 If she can stand all this, we'll do
 Most famously together.
 And, in return, I'll give her—what ?
 I can't pretend to beauty,
 But have an unengaged heart,
 Am always fit for duty ;
 Always enjoy good health, thank Jove,
 Of all good things the giver !
 I never yet have been in love,
 Nor ever had the Liver.
 My constitution's whole and sound,
 Ne'er by disease been broken ;
 I've never quarrelsome been found,
 But quiet if fairly spoken.
 I never gamble, never drink,
 Have lots of years to live,
 At least, so I in reason think,
 As I'm not twenty-five.
 I'm just six feet two inches high,
 Proportionably strong :
 Widows for me need not apply,
 UNLESS THEY'RE VERY YOUNG.*

Government Gazette.

BOBBSQUH.

KING'S OFFICERS IN INDIA.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,—Your inserting the following remarks on the state of that portion of his Majesty's army serving in India, will confer a particular obligation on every officer in the Service, and more so on the junior branches, amongst whom I beg to subscribe myself your's most obediently,

A SUBALTERN.

If an individual, or any class of individuals, in any profession, in the exercise of their duty, should be placed in a situation full of danger and privations, it would naturally be imagined that some recompense or hopes of reward should be held out to them. I propose to show that such is far from the case of his Majesty's officers in India, and that no return whatever awaits them to make up for the additional risk of their lives, and, which is even worse, the certain destruction of their health in a pestilential climate.

I shall begin with promotion, that first of all objects with my profession. India, without any exception, is the worst quarter in the world for that desirable object. The deaths are numerous, and yet there appears to be some fatality in more senses than one attending them, the vacancies being very often given away out of the regiments. I hear your readers say, 'Impossible!' but I say, fact, and a reference to the 'Army List,' will show the truth of my assertion. I hear you, Mr. Editor, say, 'What! men toiling in a climate where death and total loss of health are everyday occurrences; where you have an income that enables you to exist, but not live; * where you have the annoyance, (for so it will be to the strongest mind,) of seeing every person in better circumstances than yourself, although in all likelihood much less qualified from their talents to be so; far distant from connections and friends, and, from the great distance, totally prevented from forwarding your own interests, should an opportunity offer, and yet not get that promotion (death vacancies) which from time immemorial has been considered the right of a regiment!' This seems strange, but is most true. Some idea may be formed of the chance of promotion in this country, when it is known that, in each of the three infantry regiments here, one company in five years is the average without purchase. As to persons enabled to purchase, few will come to India, as they well know that home, or rather being on the spot, is the best chance for them. At one company in five years, how many years

* The remark of the late gallant Commander-in-chief, at Bombay, (Sir C. Colville,) who said, 'A subaltern may exist, but cannot live, on his pay.'

will be required to make twenty-six lieutenants captains, 'even allowing one subaltern a year to be removed by death, promotion into another corps, &c.?' 'But then your allowances are so ample,' says another, 'that you are more than repaid for all your losses and disappointments.' My answer is, that no subaltern can live on his pay here without being equally economical, and even more so, than he is in England. I must be excused entering into minutiae, but it is necessary for my purpose. An ensign's pay in this Presidency, is 178 rupees per month, and a lieutenant's 234 rupees per month; from the former, 25 rupees are stopped for house rent, and from the latter, 30 rupees per month for one small room. The expenses of the mess, band, and other subscriptions, are never under 100 rupees per month: the balance in the paymaster's hands will be easily calculated; and from it servants, breakfast, clothes, a horse, (which in this country is necessary,) and all changes or additions in dress, appointments, &c., are all to be paid. The rupee is issued at two shillings and sixpence, and in the purchase of every article, except the produce of India, passes for one shilling. For instance, a cocked hat, 100 rupees to 140, a sword 70 rupees, a pair of boots 30 rupees, an epaulette 50 rupees, &c. When in the field, the pay is about 30 rupees per month better; but there are no field-quarters for King's regiments on this side of India.

The Honourable Company's regiments are very differently situated, as all their stations, with the exception of three or four, are field-stations. And every lieutenant, and almost every ensign, commands a company, and some even two companies, and for the command of one company receives 33 rupees per month. In each regiment there are ten companies and but five captains: consequently, the five senior subalterns command companies in their own right; but there are always two or three captains employed on the staff: (vide 'Army List:') therefore, there are seven or eight companies to be given to subalterns. There are ten lieutenants; and, as the adjutant, interpreter, and quarter-master are not entitled to have companies, and two, three, or four other subalterns may be of the staff, sick, leave, &c., it is easily seen how all the subalterns doing regimental duty may have one or more companies. The pay in the two services is the same in all ranks. The Company's regimental officer has no reduction for house rent; he pays a company, and he is almost always at a field station; therefore, he has upwards of 90 rupees per month more than the King's subaltern. A few of the oldest subalterns in the King's regiments certainly command companies; but these are very few, as, by the King's regulations, eight captains out of eleven must be with the regiment. The King's regiments are at the most expensive stations, and must live at their messes, which are very expensive; whilst many Company's regiments have no messes, and the officers generally please themselves. An officer of the Company's service has lately attempted to show that King's officers are not only not excluded the staff list, but that they have their equal share of those appointments.

It is scarcely necessary to notice such absurd and unfounded positions; but a few words may be necessary. One argument is, that, because there are two lieutenant-colonels, two majors, and eleven captains in the King's regiment, and only one lieutenant-colonel, one major, and five captains in the Company's regiment, in the former there is a greater chance of promotion. But if in one case two majors depend on two lieutenant-colonels for promotion, and eleven captains on two majors, and twenty-six lieutenants on eleven captains, whilst, in the other case, one major on one lieutenant-colonel, five captains on one major, and ten lieutenants on five captains,—which of those has the greater chance? I will ask the writer one question: Would he rather be the tenth or twenty-sixth lieutenant for promotion? In which cases are most chances against his life?

As to the staff appointments being equally divided, let the following plain statement of facts speak for itself. On the 1st of January, 1827, the whole officers of every corps and service under the Bombay Presidency, amounted to 809; and they then held 269 staff appointments, or as one staff to two regimental officers very nearly. The numbers of his Majesty's officers were 194, and they held fourteen staff situations, or as about one staff to fourteen regimental officers. It must be further remarked, that, with the exception of three, the situations held by his Majesty's officers were either regimental or personal staff, whilst of those held by the Company's officers, nearly 200 were situations that yielded the occupant from 300 to 3000 rupees per month, exclusive of the nett pay. The medical establishment of either Service is not included in this calculation.

I have now shown that in every situation the Company's officers are better off than the King's; and they have the chance of most lucrative employments. Their promotion is much quicker, their oldest lieutenants being of 1817, and they cannot be purchased over; and yet there are 50*l.* a-year deducted from every brevet officer in his Majesty's service to put them on an equality with the Company's service! I could mention many minor circumstances that render India annoying, such as the duties, parades, &c., in such a climate being more frequent, leave of absence being very difficult to obtain, and only in the rainy season, when no person can travel.* However, if slow promotion, certain loss of health, absence from friends, and a total want of all those sports and exercises which are almost necessary for relaxation, together with all I have stated above, without any advantage to be gained, are not enough to satisfy the most determined 'Puffer' upon India, I can say no more. When once in India, the difficulties in the way of getting home (or out of

* Why should this indulgence be denied more than in Europe, where, by the Commander-in-chief's authority, one-half of the officers may have leave at certain seasons?

India) are nearly insurmountable. Without plenty of money, a lucky promotion at home by interest of friends, or a sick certificate, you are there a prisoner for years. In two of his Majesty's regiments in two years and a half, the change of officers has been wonderful. One has lost, by death, sent home sick, or on promotion, twenty-six officers; the other, twenty-three. The great number thus rendered ineffective in so short a period of time, and the few that are sent to fill their places, * tie those that are left, not only to the country, but to the spot. The staff situations in both Services, and also the officers of higher ranks, are most liberally paid; and from this circumstance I am aware that a very different tale from mine is often told in England. I request, however, that your readers will refer to their friends, who may, like me, have bought experience, for the truth of all that I have stated, and I will agree to remain in India all my life, (God forbid!) should I have mis-stated one single point.

As to the Civil Service, they are most profusely paid; and, when I state that Civil Servants, of ~~from~~ ^{from} six to ten years' service, have from fourteen to twenty-five hundred rupees per month, I am sure every one will agree with me. I have been fourteen years in his Majesty's service, and have an income of one hundred and ninety-four rupees per month; and a friend of mine, nine years and a half in the Civil Service, has *twenty-four hundred* rupees per month, or more in *one month* than I have in *one year*. If such is necessary for him, (his situation is by no means a responsible one,) what can I do on the other? Many adventurers who have come out to India without education, or being in any way distinguished for talent, zeal, or other recommendation, are receiving from six hundred to eighteen hundred rupees per month, and they belong to no Service; whilst the officers of that very Service to which the merit of *retaining* India must by every impartial person be given, are in a state looked down on by every other Service in the country, and dragging on a precarious existence, without hope of reward.

If through this statement the state of his Majesty's servants should be understood in India, and even one individual prevented from embarking for a country in which nothing awaits him but disappointment and bitter regret, I shall feel much rejoiced, and in conclusion I predict, that, unless some change be made, the day is rapidly approaching when no man of *that character* (vide note) which entitles him to hold his Majesty's commission will be found to accept employment in a regiment doing duty in India. A Captain is perhaps a little better paid than in Europe; but then he is, in other respects, similarly situated with other officers; and, as officers of that rank can live most respectably on their pay in Europe, why

* In a letter from an officer of high rank, and holding a high situation at the Horse Guards, to the colonel of his favourite regiment, he says, 'I cannot get young men, (meaning officers,) of such a description as I could wish to send out to you; and indeed I am quite at a loss.' Query, What will less favoured regiments do?

should they go to an unhealthy climate without some inducements? Besides, a captain has to pay his passage to England in case of sickness; and a long time will be necessary to enable him to save that sum.

WANT OF CHURCHES IN INDIA.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,—My anxiety to see in your columns some remark on the circumstance I am about to bring to your notice, and, through the medium of your valuable Journal, to the knowledge of the India Proprietors, enables me to conquer an aversion to writing anonymously. Allow me to observe that I should not have troubled you on this occasion, had the Calcutta press afforded a channel by which the inconvenience under which we labour might be brought to the notice of the Local Government.

It is on the subject of the want of churches at Cawnpoor, that I desire to call your attention, and it will, I am confident, surprise you, and many of your readers, that, in a large civil and military station of more than forty years' standing, and having two chaplains attached to it, no place of divine worship should ever have been erected by the Government.

The garrison consists of two King's regiments, and European horse and foot Artillery, (altogether exceeding 2000 men,) and five Native corps, the European staff, and Christian drummers, &c., of the Native corps, and the whole of the officers of the garrison are required by the brigadier to attend divine service. Now, when to the above-mentioned are to be added a very numerous class of respectable merchants and shopkeepers, and pensioned Europeans with their families, it is obviously incumbent on a good Government to provide suitable accommodation for them: and what is the accommodation here afforded? At the west end of Cantonments is a bungalow, (formerly a mess-room,) that has been altered by cutting arches in the partition walls, which separate the rooms of the house, and this is designated the 'Church Bungalow'; but it cannot be made to contain one half of the persons who reside in the vicinity, and who would frequent it. In the eastern quarter of Cantonments, the accommodation is much worse: the service is there performed in the dragoon riding-school, where benches are provided for the troops alone, and no seats for the families, or others who may attend. Three years have elapsed since our lamented bishop, Dr. Heber, on visiting Canpoor, represented the want of a church; and it is said that one was ordered to be built: but, as yet, the ground is not marked out.

I shall not trouble you with any comment, but conclude by mentioning, that, before churches were built in the interior stations, it was a common remark amongst the nation: 'What! have these Europeans no religion?' Your constant reader,

L. B.

PREPARED SPEECH OF A NATIVE INDIAN ON JURIES.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,

London, June 15, 1828.

IN your number for June 1827, you quoted a letter from 'The Madras Courier,' written by a Native of that place, on the subject of Native juries. Soon after the period at which the letter was written, it was intended to have had a second meeting of Natives on the subject, but it was suppressed. The same Native that wrote the letter, had prepared a speech to deliver at their second meeting; and, as a copy of it has come into my hands, and appears to me to possess a good deal of sound reasoning, I send it to you, as you may, perhaps, think it worthy of publication in your journal. It is as follows:

*Gentlemen of this Assembly, Friends and Countrymen,—*I trust to be favoured with your attention for a short time, while I deliver to you my sentiments on the subject for which we are now met, and I beg to say, that, in what I shall now state, I profess the sentiments, and exhibit the wishes, of a very considerable part of the respectable Natives of Madras and its neighbourhood, by many of whom I have been requested to do so. But I assure you it is not without considerable reluctance that I thus intrude myself on your notice, as, from my retired manner of life and domestic habits, I am but little qualified for public speaking. It is, however, one of the many proofs of that boundless spirit of liberality which actuates the Government under which we live, that so obscure an individual as myself is permitted to address this numerous and respectable assembly on this interesting occasion.

You are all aware that an Act of Parliament has recently been received in this country, authorising the Judges of the Supreme Court to frame such regulations as they may deem necessary for availing the Court of the services of such Natives as are found fit to serve as jurymen; and it is also known to you that a public meeting took place on the 25th of November last on that subject, but which assembly, having been abruptly broken up, led to nothing satisfactory. On the contrary, from what was published of its proceedings, an idea has gone forth, that it was the general wish of the Native community here to decline the boon thus graciously extended to them by the British Parliament,—an idea which, I am proud to aver, is neither consonant with the wishes nor at all expressive of the sentiments of the greater part of those I now address, but directly opposite to them. I trust, by the proceedings of this day it will be shown to the world, that the Native community of Madras are neither insensible of the privilege, nor unworthy of the benefits, thus bestowed upon them, but that they are highly

flattered by it, and will unite heart and hand in forwarding its operations, in assisting, aiding, and executing the views of those gracious legislators who have shown so much anxiety for the future prosperity of British India, and who, in extending the benefits of trial by jury to the Natives thereof, show that they have the welfare of this country at heart; and I flatter myself this is but a prelude of the benefits that will yet flow to us from this fostering source.

I beg it to be understood, that I have no intention of making personal reflections on any individual, as every one is certainly at full liberty to express his opinion. After having done so, however, he must lay his account with those opinions being canvassed by others; and, if he is held up to public ridicule, let him bear it.

It has been urged by individuals, that, on the score of religious scruples Hindoos are incapable of acting as jurymen. I blush as a Hindoo to hear such an assertion made; and it is painful to me to have to combat so futile a pretext. Do not Hindoos fill every situation both in the civil and military departments in India? And I have it yet to learn, if our duties as jurymen will be either so intricate, complicated, or half so troublesome, as the callings which many of us now follow are. Again, it has been said that our ignorance of the English language will preclude many from being fit jurymen; but I think there are few amongst us that are not conversant with it: and, should there be one or two instances of individuals unacquainted therewith, is it just that the whole community should be deprived of so invaluable a privilege on account of their ignorance? Surely not: it was not such trifling, frivolous, and futile grounds, I suspect, that swayed the proceedings of the memorable meeting of the 25th of November. I have my suspicions it arose from worse motives, which I shall not name, but leave them with those with whom they originated, to enjoy the remarks they have called forth from various pens, in consequence of the publication of that day's work. If there is a man in this assembly who wishes to reject the boon now offered us of acting as jurymen, so sunk in hopeless degradation as to utter such a sentiment, we owe such a man no tie of brotherhood, and claim no fellowship nor community with him.

There is no principle which so strongly operates in human nature as the law of retaliation: this appears from the laws of all nations in their earliest state; it appears also from our own feelings, when an injury is done us. We naturally long for revenge. Our very heart tells us that the person offending ought to suffer for the offence, and that the hand of him who was injured must return the blow. Such are the dictates of our natural temper; but pursue the principle to its full extent, and see where it will end. One man commits an action which is injurious to you; you feel yourself aggrieved and seek revenge. If you then retaliate upon him, he thinks

he has received a new injury, which he in his turn seeks to revenge; and thus a foundation is laid for reciprocal animosities without end. Did this principle and this practice become general, the earth would be one universal field of battle, life would be a scene of endless bloodshed, and hostilities would be immortal. Legislative wisdom hath provided a remedy for these disorders, and but for this *havo* would be made of the human race. The right of private vengeance which every man is born with, by common consent, and for the public good, is resigned into the hands of the civil magistrate.

I will not hesitate to assert,* (and I am sure every unbiassed Hindoo will go along with me,) that many of the writings among the Hindoos, which go by the name of laws, are so exceedingly vague, inconsistent, and unmeaning, that they are worse than useless in the administration of justice,—leaving the decision of the Judge almost always as arbitrary as if there were no law, and at the same time introducing the mischief of chicane with its endless quibbles and annoyances. But in the institution of trial by jury now extended to us, and where an individual has the advantage of being tried by a body of men to whom he is well known and who are acquainted with the habits, customs, and manners of the country, none of these difficulties occur: it has ever been looked upon as one of the brightest ornaments of the British Constitution, and proud indeed ought we to be in becoming partakers of it.

I am conscious I have trespassed too long on the patience of this meeting; but I cannot conclude without drawing your notice to the numerous blessings the Native population of India now enjoys, under the influence of the British Government, compared with what it ever did in any former age. Did time permit, I might exhibit to your view the horrid cruelties exercised over the poor Hindoos during the long and bloody sway of the Mogul dynasty; particularly the horrid acts of oppression exercised on religious devotees, to induce them to embrace the Musulman faith. The acts of rapine, destruction, and plunder, committed on our ancestors, are well known to many whom I now address, as well as the devastation and pillage which befel our ancient and sacred places of worship. Compare those days with our present happy situation, and say, are we not blessed in our rulers, when every one is permitted to exercise his own religious opinions free from all terror or fear.

I trust this meeting will not break up until an appropriate address is framed to the Honourable the Judges of the Supreme Court, stating fully our sense of the privilege now bestowed upon us, and our readiness to come forward to afford every information that may be required from us on the subject. And, after the address is framed, I would suggest the propriety of a committee of respectable individuals being chosen to carry the objects of this

day's meeting into effect, and that they also be instructed to publish the same in the Madras newspapers. In conclusion, I hope there are many now present ready to favour us with their sentiments on the subject, and to elucidate it fully, which I regret my inability to do.

ORDNANCE DEPARTMENT IN INDIA.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,—I am an humble member of the Ordnance Department, and, in consequence, was some time ago requested to affix my name to a letter intended to be presented by the conductors of Ordnance, to the proper authorities, 'entreating that the smallness of our pay and allowances might be taken into the humane consideration of our Honourable masters *here*, and that they would be pleased to grant us such relief as, to their wisdom, our case appeared to require.'

That letter stated, that, in point of fact, we suffered a reduction, instead of obtaining an increase, in our allowances, on our being promoted, from the circumstance that many of our department came from staff situations, where they had enjoyed from 80 to 130 rupees monthly, arising from pay, staff, and writing allowances, so that the object kindly intended by Government became thereby unintentionally frustrated!

A conviction that Government has ever extended its attention and support to all deserving thereof, produced the letter above alluded to; nothing doubting but that we, in common with all other applicants, should eventually succeed in interesting and calling forth the sympathy of our Honourable masters!

Now, Sir, my present motive for troubling you is, in the first place, to rouse the memory of him into whose hands our letter has passed, and to entreat that it may be brought from '*darkness to light*,' in order that the matter therein contained may be laid before those who are alone competent to judge whether our requests are founded in justice or not, and where alone we can expect impartial views of our case to be taken, and hope for a redress commensurate with our privations.

In the second place, I wish to observe that I have, in common with many others, felt anxious that some person might be induced to attempt rescuing the members of our department from various hardships, which they are at present suffering under, and which, very unfortunately, seem to be increasing, particularly since the lamented death of that distinguished and inestimable officer, Major-General Sir John Horsford!

None having appeared desirous of such an undertaking, I shall attempt the task, and for this purpose will commence with the hardship we feel ourselves more particularly subjected to, by the

introduction of so many commissioned commissaries to take charge of magazines, thereby superseding older and more experienced Ordnance officers; and for no other reason than because *they are—warrant-officers.*

As many reductions have lately taken place in several branches of the Service, consequent on a peace-establishment, it may probably appear necessary to apply some reduction to the Ordnance Department. In the contemplation of such a measure, or even otherwise, I would, with due deference, presume to offer a few remarks, as well in this view as to afford an impartial disclosure of the state of our department. Nothing but a firm conviction of the good likely to be produced by this exposition, would have urged me to the fulfilment of a task which, I feel confident, will meet with a very ungracious reception in a certain quarter; but, actuated as I am by a well-matured determination of being, if possible, the humble instrument of rescuing the class of individuals I have the honour to belong to, from no ordinary stamp of obloquy and privation, I shall persevere, leaving to the judgment of those whose judgment we seek, to determine how far I have justified my cause.

There are in our department at present eight commissioned commissaries and deputy-commissaries, who together receive monthly 3,200 rupees, for being in charge of magazines, and signing the monthly papers of their respective establishments. If they have a more ostensible duty to perform, I rather think it falls to the lot of a deputy, as I have known a commissioned commissary in charge of a certain magazine, who, during a period of ten or twelve months, was not more than half a dozen times in his magazine: where he was, I know not. Be this, however, as it may, it frequently happens that commissioned commissaries, in charge of magazines in the field, apply for, and obtain, leave of absence to visit the Presidency, making over their charge, *ad interim*, to the senior warrant-officer, who thereby has to perform a duty *gratuitously*, for a period of ten or twelve months, for which another person is in the receipt of 400 or 500 rupees monthly! But suppose the commissioned commissary to be at his magazine station, what has *he* to do? Virtually nothing! Whatever is to be done, is done by his drudge, *alias* the warrant-officer. Thus it is that an expense of 3,200 rupees monthly, or 38,400 yearly, is incurred without a shadow of benefit being derived by the State; and eight valuable officers in their own department are kept from their regiment; and at times too, when the charge of two or three companies at head-quarters falls to the lot of one subaltern officer.

I do not mean to attach much importance to the circumstance of commissioned commissaries obtaining leave of absence; but merely to inquire, if the duties of such and such magazines can be carried on, (and that they can I believe none will doubt,)—if, I say, the duties can be carried on for such a period, and during the absence of the commissioned commissary, where then exists the ne-

rallying point, round which much discussion has taken place, to say nothing of the little bickerings it has produced,—all commissioned officers strenuously demanding a salute, as they emphatically term it, from conductors of Ordnance; but for which there exists no one authority, if we except a garrison, which goes no further than the glacis of that garrison, in which it was issued.

Something strange appears in the wording of this very order. Apothecaries, stewards, and riding-masters are exempted, as if it were only necessary to inflict so summary a mode of punishment on poor conductors; and yet the former ranks are all warrant-officers. Another reason to prove that the order in question, restricted as it even is to the garrison of Fort William, never should have had an existence,—that it must have been penned when the intellectual faculties slumbered, and that it was sanctioned at a moment when the placid disposition of the illustrious personage whose authority it required, rendered him an easy prey to the designing,—is the liability of a warrant-officer in the Honourable Company's Service, saluting one of that description in his Majesty's; it being no novel matter that one of the latter should be quartered with the regiment stationed in Fort William: and this certainly was a degradation the illustrious person already mentioned *never* would have contemplated; and but a little reflection, undisturbed by sinister influence, would have induced him to spurn the request that was made for his sanction to an act intended to lessen the respect of as reputable and useful a class of individuals as exists.

Having pointed out successfully, I hope, the inutility of continuing commissioned commissaries in the Ordnance Department, I shall now endeavour to show how the department may be rendered, not only by far more efficient, but also conduce to emulation among the individuals connected with it, and who really do require some benefit; as also to create a saving to the State of 4,925 rupees monthly, together with the opportunity afforded for the return of the commissioned commissaries to their own branch of the Service. I have deviated in the allowances, as well as number of Ordnance officers required for the duties of the department; and for this very obvious reason, that, wherever I have been, I have found from observation that the number laid down by me is fully sufficient for the most complete discharge of the various duties required by each magazine. I have pointed out reductions for the higher grades, simply because they proportionally receive too much, while the lower grades receive far too little, and also from a conviction that Government would not feel disposed to adopt measures that aimed at a greater expenditure than at present exists.

Besides this, I have partly framed a plan, which, if sanctioned by Government, would induce the higher grades to retire from the Service immediately on completing their twenty-seven years' service in India. The accomplishment of such a *desideratum* would prove an infallible remedy against the present highly objectionable disposition of deputy-commissaries, holding on to the latest period of their

existence, to the prejudice of the Service, and detriment of more active, and consequently more deserving, men.

No system can be more fundamentally ruinous to the State, than that which admits of men holding appointments, whose mental and physical abilities have from age deteriorated, and whose snow-clad temples proclaim the necessity of their retiring to the calm abodes of domestic solitude, there to direct their thoughts towards *that* country from whose bourn no traveller returns; and not to be mixing at their advanced years in the busy scenes of life, superintending arsenal and magazine affairs, (or trying to do so rather,) whereby their tempers become ruffled, their dispositions soured, and themselves unfitted to consider with calm dignity their approaching latter end!!

To conclude: the system at present in existence, of employing commissioned commissaries, is fraught with injury to the Service, even to a greater extent than here exemplified; and, sooner or later, it will evince itself in strong and impressive colours. It retards emulation among the warrant-officers, who are alone the life and energy of the department; for it debars them from any direct or indirect communication with Government; no opportunity occurs to prove how zealous they are in the cause of their Honourable masters; and consequently all their feelings for the good of their department become deadened. They see others reaping the reward of their labour and exertions; and, as a matter of course, they will ere long relax in their ardour to that Service which it is at present their greatest ambition to see exalted, and their humble and unceasing endeavour to serve and promote!

G.

Present Number, and Allowances.*				Revised or proposed Establish., with Allowances.					
Number.	Description of Rank.	Total amount to each Rank monthly.	Grand Total Sica Rupees.	Number of each Rank.	Description of Rank.	Amount of Pay.	Full Batta.	Total to each.	Grand Total Sica Rupees.
8	Commisd. Commis. Warrant Officers		3,200	8	Dep. Commiss.	250	120	370	2,960
6	Dep. Commissaries	400	2,400	7	Assistant ditto	200	90	290	2,030
7	Assistant ditto	315	2,205	7	Dep. Assist. do.	120	90	210	1,470
4	Dep. Assistant do.	235	940	40	Conductors	80	90	170	6,800
66	Conductors†	150	9,900	26	Sub ditto	60	60	120	3,180
26	Sub ditto†	100	2,600						16,380
			21,305						
	Deduct right hand	...	16,380						
	Monthly saving to the State }	...	4,925						
	Yearly	...	59,400						

* Exclusive of the Principal and Deputy Principal Commissaries.

† This is the amount when receiving house-rent.

	Commissioned Officers.		Warrant Officers.				
	Commissary General.*	Commissary	Deputy Commissary	Assistant do.	Deputy Assistant do.	Conductors†	Sub-Conductors.
Arsenal, Fort William	1	1	1		1	5	5
Dum Dum			1			2	1
Saugor			1		1	3	2
Chunar			1			3	2
Allahabad			1	1		4	2
Cawnpore			1		1	4	2
Agra			1	1	1	4	2
Delhie			1		1	3	2
Dacca				1		2	2
Kumaul				1		2	1
Loodiannah					1	2	1
Barreilly				1		2	1
Cuttack					1	1	1
Chittagong				1		1	1
Ally Ghuh				1		2	1
Total	1	1	3	7	7	40	26

*

* This designation to be applied to our present principal commissary, and the term *Commissariat-General* to the officer holding the designation of *Commissary-General*.

† To add to the depressed state of the conductors, they have been lately, by a most grievous and ungenerous act, excluded from that salutary benefit which formerly existed, of obtaining admission for their children into what is termed the Upper Orphan School; which has entailed further privations, by, in a great measure, depriving them of the only chance they had of getting a respectable education for their offspring, a circumstance that, in a country like this, is sufficient to corrode the feelings of any parent at all desirous of witnessing the advancement of his children in literary perfections, as education is so excessively high, and consequently out of the reach of all those whose allowances are circumscribed!

THE JUNIOR UNITED SERVICE CLUB.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,—I was not at all surprised to find, in your number for this month, an answer to my letter which appeared in your 'Herald' for May, under the head 'King's and Company's Officers in the United Service Clubs;' but I must confess that I did not anticipate contradiction on a point as notorious as the sun at noon-day; nor was I prepared for the note you have appended to your Correspondent's letter. However I may yield to your better judgment, I cannot but acknowledge, in this case, my inability to discover how the correspondence and documents you allude to, can, by any possibility, remove the impression from my mind, unless they have furnished you with proofs that the officer of the Indian army was rejected on account of something exceptionable in his character as an officer and a gentleman; but, as I believe him hitherto to have stood, as respects these necessary requisites, unimpeached, I cannot, for a moment, imagine you to be instructed to go such lengths. I shall, therefore, content myself by observing, in reply to your note, that my letter and correspondence, as respects the Junior United Service Club, may be contradicted, but cannot be refuted. The correspondence is from a gentleman of undoubted veracity, who attended, and, with others, heard and felt what he states.

Had your Correspondent paid a little more attention to my letter, and less to declamation, he would have seen that his 'unqualified, decisive contradiction' is gratuitous as applied to me; for, whatever my opinion may have been, my letter no where asserts that such a determination exists. The assertion (as will appear from the correspondence in your number for May) is from a brother member of the Club of which your Correspondent signs himself a member. That I have believed, and do believe, the assertions, I am willing to admit; and it will require more than the counter-assertion of any one individual to make me disbelieve it.

To your Correspondent's *careful examination* of the ballot-book, and fallacious announcement that 'but one solitary instance has occurred of an officer of the Indian army having been rejected,' I have merely to oppose the simple fact of this *one* solitary instance having occurred to either the *second* or *third* officer of the Indian army whose names had appeared as candidates on the ballot-book of the Junior United Service Club; and, further, to state that I am not, at this present moment, aware of any officer having since become a member. (I beg distinctly to be understood as speaking of the Indian army.) That officers of the Company's horse have subsequently been admitted, is within my own knowledge; as well as that, previously to their admission, some of them were *rejected*,

cessity of him or his appointment? The answer is obvious; and the saving the State would obtain, by his removal, is equally so.

If it is thought that a more rigid adherence to the rules or good of the Service, more care in the custody or disposal of the stores, may be obtained by placing commissioned commissaries in charge, I trust I may be permitted to assert, (without any direct or indirect detraction from the merits of any man,) that more zealous, careful, and *real* duty-performing subjects no where exist, than those very warrant-officers thus superseded, and applied to the drudgery of magazines!

If greater regularity in the discharge of business is anticipated, I am bold to assert it never was, nor ever will be realised, it being a well-known fact, that magazines, while under the charge of warrant-officers, are characterised by regularity, promptitude, and correctness.

If greater abilities are thought requisite than warrant-officers are *supposed* to possess, my answer is simply this: The abilities of warrant-officers have ever been found commensurate with the duties consequent on the charge of a magazine; nothing more can, therefore, be required. With one or two solitary exceptions, all the abilities required, both practically and theoretically, are happily blended with every requisite for the good of the department, among the higher, and among many of the lower grades of warrant-officers; and, while it must be regretted that, of late years, a few of a very contrary description have crept into the department, which is purely to be attributed to those at whose instigation such admissions were obtained, yet nothing serious need be dreaded from this circumstance, as a sufficient number will ever be found capable of reflecting credit on the fulfilment of those duties consequent on either their rank or charge.

I trust I have fully shown, that no equivalent is had for the vast sum of public money yearly expended by the employment of commissioned commissaries in the Ordnance Department, as also the loss occasioned to the Service by the removal of these officers from the direct line of their regimental duty, a loss which is greatly aggravated when we reflect on the *experience* and *talents* possessed by them, and the *total absence* in the Ordnance Department of opportunities for duly appreciating the worth of such individuals!

It is somewhat odd, that there should exist such a staff-hunting *mania* among the officers in the Honourable Company's Service. It is not so in his Majesty's; yet the latter are alike subject to exposure, to changes of climate, and the consequences thereof, and should feel as strongly urged to make *hay while the sun shines*. It is singular, too, how the officers of our Service can forego the honourable distinctions of their profession, to become superintendants of carpenters, sicklegurs, and blacksmiths!

To what a degree of military enthusiasm did that highly distinguished officer, Sir John Horsford, carry his devotion to the

Service! What an example to others! '*It is my boast,*' said he, '*after all my service, that I never held a staff situation.*' In what unqualified terms did he censure the system of accepting paltry staff situations! Besides this, it is a well-known fact that he intended to exert his influence with Government to root out all commissioned commissaries from the Ordnance Department, and to prevent their future employment in that branch of the service, in order to avail himself of *their* services, when he felt *well* convinced such services were most essential and required, reserving an exception in favour of those required at the arsenal, as principal and deputy principal commissaries; and even the appointment to the last situation was, in some measure, objected to by him; for he deemed it more appropriate to the class of warrant-officers, as was the case on a former occasion at Fort St. George.

By this arrangement, Sir John intended the Ordnance Department to be kept open as a field for the advancement of the warrant-officers then in it, and for rewarding his artillery men, or others, whose services or good fortune should bring them to the notice of Government, as worthy of its patronage; and, when the number of highly gifted and respectable men with whom the Honourable Company's Service in general, and the artillery in particular, abound, is duly considered, (and they are taught to look up to the Ordnance Department as the sole reward for either services, talents, or friends' influence,) it will not, I trust, be deemed too much, that an attempt should be made to keep it free from incumbrance such as above stated, as also to apply censure to the ungenerous feeling that would rob such men of the only means of acquiring a respectable rank, and a competency to gild the evening of their declining days, and that, too, after a service of thirty or forty years!

In his Majesty's Service, meritorious characters are rewarded by commissions and appointments, as adjutants and quartermasters; but, in our Service, nothing but the Ordnance Department exists, shackled, as it at present is, by those who have otherwise a wide field of fame, rank, and competency before them. Surely, then, we may with great justice consider these gentlemen as stumbling-blocks to our advancement.*

Another hardship, which appears to us, and which many have considered, as very invidious, is the distinction drawn between warrant-officers in the service of the Honourable Company, and in his Majesty's. In the latter Service, when the appointment of adjutant, or quartermaster, is conferred on a serjeant-major, or other meritorious man, he immediately becomes entitled to all and every the privileges, ceremonies, and distinctions of the other officers of the army, and is admitted into their society; yet he is but a warrant-officer, and may remain so for months, nay, years. What conclusion are we to draw from this? If commissioned officers of one Service rank with those of the other, so should warrant-officers. This appears a

* See page 168.

but on the following Monday again proposed, and then elected. This system of rejection and election is no very uncommon thing in the Junior United Service Club, but with it I have nothing to do, except as it may, on your Correspondent's own showing, furnish some little insight into the chances of admission open to the officers of the Indian army; and, if I may add to this insight, I have only to appeal to the books of the Club, where the officers from the Indian army will be found to bear about the same proportion to those of the King's army as one does to three hundred.

Whatever the fears of your Correspondent may be, or the motives from whence they spring, he may rest satisfied that the two Services know better how to appreciate each other than to allow a question which arises out of any thing connected with the Junior United Service Club, for a moment to disturb that harmony which so happily exists between the officers of his Majesty's Service and those of the Indian army. I beg also to assure your Correspondent that my severe remarks, as he is pleased to term them, were never intended to apply to a majority of the establishment; and I should be sorry if I could for a moment suppose that any liberal mind could so have misconstrued what I have written. My severity, if severe, was directed to those who can wantonly trifle with and wound the feelings of a gentleman. If this applies to your Correspondent, (which I do not believe,) I can only offer him a welcome to the full measure of my severity.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

A SUBSCRIBER.

Cowes, Isle of Wight, June 14th, 1828

LETTER FROM CAPTAIN MAXFIELD.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,—A letter addressed to me, signed 'An Old Proprietor,' which appeared in your 'Herald' of last month, has but recently been brought to my notice; and, although I do not deem it requisite to reply to every anonymous Correspondent, there are parts of his letter on which I wish to offer a few remarks. In the fourth paragraph of the 'Old Proprietor's' letter, he states, 'Report, however, says, that your opinions on many important points connected with Indian affairs have undergone considerable change, and that you now even consider the preservation of our Indian empire dependent on the preservation of the East India Company. Mere report, however, would have had little weight with me, unless corroborated by some circumstances, which, I confess, have excited my surprise. Had you not been present at the last two Quarterly General Courts held at the India House, I should have found an excuse for you, which I am at present unable to conceive.'

If the 'Old Proprietor' has not yet learnt from me personally my

opinion, however unimportant in a subject of such deep importance, and is indebted to mere report, permit me at once to remove all doubt upon the subject, and to state most unequivocally, that, whatever changes or modifications may take place at the close of the present Charter, I trust, and devoutly hope, for the sake of India and its numerous and valuable population, no less than the best interests of Great Britain, that the East India Company's Charter will be renewed, and the Government of India administered through the medium of the East India Company.

As the 'Old Proprietor' will hardly suspect me of blind partiality to the East India Company's Government, he will, I trust, pardon me, if I am not blind to the advantages such agency offers to the State.

No Government, or human institution, is free from abuses; neither is the Company's Government: but there are redeeming qualities and powerful safeguards presented through such medium, which no other Government under heaven affords. Numerous arguments might be adduced in support of such assertion; but I am not bound to establish a position so easy of demonstration. The declaration I have made is the involuntary tribute of conviction. I have not been slow to disapprove of what I deemed objectionable: shall I be tardy then in declaring what I sincerely and honestly prefer?

The 'Old Proprietor' then insinuates a charge of inconsistency in my not calling the attention of the Court of Proprietors to the defalcation which lately occurred in the Company's Treasury, and remarks:

'The Company's Treasury then, Sir, may be notoriously plundered, and the delinquents not merely pardoned, but promoted, while a perfect oblivion is produced, and you are studiously silent on the subject. Mr. Gahagan, I think, did advert to the circumstance at the last Quarterly Court, but declared his want of knowledge of the facts to enable him to submit a motion on the subject, while he dwelt on the importance of it. If you could have stated your inability, for want of information, to frame a motion on such an important point, I should have been spared the trouble of addressing you on this occasion; but, if I am not misinformed, you were long ago in possession of all the particulars of the transactions alluded to, as well as the extraordinary conduct of the Court of Directors in such affair. With such information, what a case ought you not to have established—what credit might you not have obtained—and what an opportunity you have lost!'

Hence, then, the 'Old Proprietor' gives me credit for the possession of complete information upon the subject, and considers it a criminal omission that I should have been silent, while his knowledge of my being in possession of such facts fully warrants me in believing

that he must have been as well acquainted with the case referred to as he supposes me to be.

Why, then, should not the 'Old Proprietor' himself have framed a motion on a subject of such importance? Did he abstain from so doing only to afford me the opportunity? or was it to enable him the better to evince his zealous support of the Court of Directors, when assailed upon any vulnerable point, that he preferred placing me in the breach to volunteering for the Forlorn Hope himself?

If he really and sincerely admires that fearless independence he so strenuously recommends in the exposure of abuses, let him confirm it by example, and allow me, on this occasion, in his own words, to tell him: 'With such information as he possessed, what a case ought he not to have established—what credit might he not have obtained—and what an opportunity he has lost!'

I remain, Sir, your most obedient humble servant,

W. MAXFIELD.

Sunbury, June 16, 1828.

LETTER FROM BENGAL.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,

Calcutta, January 12, 1828.

Mr. John Trotter, who, in conjunction with John Pascal Larkins, established 'The John Bull,' having been ordered by the Court of Directors to be suspended from the Service for six months, for writing certain forgotten anonymous letters on the management of the Bank of Bengal, (for which he had already been overpunished by Lord Amherst, by a heavy fine in the shape of reduced salary, and a lacerating letter from the pen of Mr. Holt Mackenzie,) has determined to proceed to England in the *Princess Charlotte*. This protomartyr of the Civil Service is the same person who projected that reproductive agency, which never attained even to a foetal existence. This little touch of tyranny is a very inadequate retribution for the evil he did in establishing that Journal, which was, from the first, the instigator and apologist of every act of oppression during the administration of Lord Hastings, Mr. Adam, and Lord Amherst, and, under its present Editor, is an organ of sedition, stirring up the Natives to hate and cast out the Europeans as monopolists of the wealth of their country. If Mr. John Trotter had been divested of his whole fortune, banished from India, and even after that immersed in debt, he would only have had a pre-gustation of that violence and robbery with which the Paper, and the party with which he was associated, succeeded in overwhelming others. He can now plead nothing in self-defence, or in arruignment of the injustice with which he has been treated, which may not be answered out of the mouth of his own *Bull*.

The present Editor of 'The Bull,' Dr. Bryce, has been for some time labouring, in co-operation, as he imagines, with Sir John Malcolm, to persuade the Natives, that the effect of the COLONISATION for which the sugar-petitioners pray, would be to deprive them of their lands, and to reduce them to a state of beggary and starvation. He describes to them the massacre and confiscations in Ireland in the 17th century, and the cruelties of the Spaniards in the Ladrone Islands, as specimens of the devastation and misery necessarily included in the colonisation of India. He talks of an inundation of English *paupers* in India. He talks of British colonists monopolising the wealth and power of the country, and taking possession by force (*guburdustee*) of the lands and goods of the Natives! He arrays the numerical strength of the Natives against the handful of Europeans who desire that security of person and property, under the inviolable safeguard of the law, should reign throughout the country, without respect of persons, whether Native or European, Hindoo or Christian. The *means* whereby Sir John Malcolm would resist colonisation are different; but his *end* is the same, to perpetuate poverty, disunion, weakness, danger, and misgovernment; and he cannot complain if the bad eminence which he occupies as the main teacher of an erroneous doctrine, attracts to his support the lowest and most ignorant coadjutors. It is no less fortunate, however, than singular, that, as discussion opens the eyes of the most intelligent among the Natives, they appreciate the false and hypocritical pretence on which colonisation is refused; they disbelieve the calumnies which are propagated against the future colonists; they see that NOTHING BUT COLONISATION CAN BENEFIT THEIR COUNTRY, by the diffusion of knowledge, industry, and security of person and property, and concur with the friends of that measure in regarding its opponents as the declared enemies of their country.

Dr. Bryce boasts that he has obtained the signatures of forty Native gentlemen to a requisition to the Sheriff, for a meeting at the Town-hall to petition *against* colonisation. Why has not the requisition yet made its appearance? What prevents him from bringing his people to the scratch? What will become of him, if, a seceder from his own countrymen, he shall find himself deserted by the Natives whom he attempted to mislead?

I refer you to the 'Hurkaru' for an account of the extraordinary blunder of Sir Charles Grey, touching the meaning of the 37 Geo. III., c. 142, which he represented as restraining him from reducing the *fees* received by the officers of the Supreme Court, without a requisition from the Court of Directors; whereas the words of the Act relate solely to the reduction of *salaries* paid to the officers of the Supreme Court by the East India Company. This error could only proceed from his eagerness to find himself restrained from giving to suitors the relief which they sought, and which, if Grand Juries persevere, they will ultimately wrest from the Court.

LETTER FROM MADRAS.

To the Editor of the *Oriental Herald*.

Madras, 7th February, 1828.

THE new year was ushered in here by a splendid ball and supper, given by the Right Honourable the Governor at the Banqueting-room, Government-house, on the evening of the 1st of January. The company was numerous, and the fête went off as all such entertainments generally do here, where the body is more benefited than the mind; for, as far as such enjoyment is in question, all seemed to be highly satisfied. The viands were of course excellent, the wines as good as are usually met with on such occasions, and the host affable and courteous.

The ship *Wellington* arrived early in January, from England; amongst the passengers by her, came Captain Marjoribanks, the new master attendant for this Port, appointed from the India House, in the room of the late Captain Grant: Mr. Gascoigne reverts to his former situation of Deputy: he had acted as Master, since Captain Grant's death.

Sir Ralph Palmer, our Chief Justice, returned on the 15th, from Bengal, by the ship *Clyde*.

Our Superintendent of Police, Major Ormsby, has also returned from his sea voyage, and resumed the duties of his situation. Mr. Elliot, who acted in his absence, is, it is said, to be otherwise provided for. At the sessions, held on the 23d, Sir G. W. Ricketts, in delivering his address to the Grand Jury, took an opportunity of paying a high compliment to Mr. Elliot, for the very able and satisfactory manner in which he had filled the office of Superintendent during Major Ormsby's absence, and added that, in doing so, he also expressed the opinions of the Chief Justice and Sir R. Comyn.

No trials of any interest came before the Court at this time.

At several times during the month, the weather has been wet and squally, and often bore a threatening appearance: the swell was at times excessively great, and so high was the surf as to cut off all communication with the shipping. An old military officer, who had been on board the ship *Wellington*, looking at her accommodations, previously to his taking a passage home in her, was upset while coming ashore in a boat with his European servant, when about twenty yards from the beach. Luckily they both clung to the boat, which was soon again righted by the boatman, assisted by some catamarans that were fortunately at hand when the accident occurred. The parties were well ducked, and looked rather out of humour on mounting the Colonel's curriole to drive home.

Our races commenced on the 21st, and the ~~celebration~~ ^{course}, on the first morning, was very respectable, the Right Honourable the Governor, his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief, and many other leading characters being present. There were several days' running; but the sport was very meagre, and by no means equal to what was expected. Few individuals here enter into this amusement with any spirit. The Commissary-General, a captain of dragoons, two or three military and civil officers, with sundry idle attorneys, are the only persons who seem to have a taste for the turf; and to some of them it has tasted so bitter, sour, and disagreeable at this meeting, that they have been heard to express their determination of abandoning it, at least as far as horse-racing goes; but a subscription has been entered into for getting a pack of hounds, and the association bears the name of 'The Madras Hunts'.

A match for three thousand rupees, between two celebrated horses, Wildblood and Orelia, took place the first day of the meeting, and created very considerable interest: it was gained by the former, contrary to general expectation; and, as very large bets were pending on the match, a good deal of money was lost and won, and some very long visages were to be seen at the race-stand on the termination of the match, realising exactly Hogarth's picture of the Gamblers in the Rake's Progress. Fortunately, the propensity for gaming does not prevail here to any great extent. We are not, as in England, disgusted by seeing a peer of the realm arm in arm with a gamester or a pugilist of low birth and vulgar deportment. However, but few years have elapsed since occurrences arose from horse-racing here that excited pain, indignation, and disgust throughout the whole community, and tended much towards stirring up malignant passions, ill-blood, and disagreements that time will never obliterate.

The Right Honourable the Governor has, for the present, abandoned his intention of proceeding to the Neilgherry Hills; and of visiting other districts in the interior. Preparations had been made for his departure about this time, and there are different reports as to the cause of the journey being put off. A report of that dreadful disease the cholera being prevalent at several villages on the route, and of the Mysore and Seringapatam fevers being rather more violent than usual this season, is stated to have induced him to remain here, rather than run risks. The same causes are said to have induced his Excellency Sir G. T. Walker, the Commander-in-chief, to give up his intention of proceeding on a military tour, for which preparations had likewise been made. There are other reports in circulation as to the reasons these great men have for remaining at the Presidency; and one, of no little consideration, is the probability of the new Governor-General, Lord W. Bentinck, touching here previously to his proceeding to Calcutta. His Lord

ship was universally admired and esteemed during the four years he directed the affairs of this Presidency, (viz. from 1863 to 1867.) and has many friends at Madras, European and Native. It is generally wished that he may gratify us with a visit.

Our Right Honourable Governor also has his hands pretty full of business, and, to all appearance, he is highly competent to it. Numerous removals and changes are going on amongst the civilians. David Hill, Esq., Chief Secretary to Government, has been removed from his situation, and is succeeded by R. Clive, Esq., formerly Secretary to Government in the military department. An old civilian, Collector and Magistrate of one of the principal districts under the Madras Government, has been removed from his situation, and another appointed to it. Report says that he had been tyrannically severe on some part of the Native population, and guilty of other improprieties; to investigate which a commission is to assemble on the spot.

A determined spirit to economise pervades every act of our Governor; and public report says, some of those 'who sit in judgment' with him are not equally zealous. Having long indulged themselves in habits of luxurious extravagance, they are averse to check it in others; but, from the spirit evinced by the Governor, there is no doubt that he will carry his work of retrenchment into every department; and it is rumoured, that some of the members of Government are so annoyed at what is going forward in this way, that more than one seat in Council are likely soon to become vacant by the departure of their occupants to Europe.

Some reductions are also spoken of in the Army, the Ordnance, and Commissariat Departments, that will lead to economy, without lessening the efficiency of the establishment. The Medical and Ecclesiastical Departments have also undergone a scrutiny; but it is not thought any alterations can be effected in either, there being more need of additions than curtailments to both; unless it be in the establishment of the Kirk of Scotland,—as we have here two chaplains to it, with their two clerks, &c., and there is only service for about an hour and a half on Sunday morning, to a very limited congregation; which duty these Rev. northern divines take alternately, so that each has about three hours' labour monthly. Their monthly salary is about equal to what many of their brethren at home get yearly; yet those men at home do as much duty in a week as these, here, do in a year.

I attended, lately, the examination of the Vepery Academy, which is conducted by Mr. David Kerz, assisted by Mrs. K. and others. It was truly pleasing to observe the progress the young people had made in the various branches of education. I may safely say, if this seminary is equalled, it is not excelled by any other in India: every thing seems to be conducted with so much regularity, good taste, and propriety, that I almost fancied myself in some Eng-

lish seminary, until the (brown, but comely) countenances of the youths reminded me where I was. I send you copies of letters, (as cut from 'The Government Gazette' here,) addressed to Mr. Kerz, by clergymen who attended the examinations: they are of a highly satisfactory nature, and, if you can afford them a place in your columns, you will confer a benefit on the rising generation.

Public parties and private entertainments have been very frequent during the month of January, as they usually are: the Monthly Public Ball, the Race Ball, &c., have tended to enliven society here, although, upon the whole, there is but little sociality prevalent—but much state, stiffness, and formality. Those midnight assemblies, card-playing and scandalising conventions, are very far from being agreeable; health, beauty, and fortune, are there frequently sacrificed without any adequate compensation in return. To a stranger, newly arrived, the ladies (many of them at least) appear as just risen from the bed of sickness: their voice is soft and spiritless, and every step betrays languor and lassitude: they certainly want the glow of health in the countenance, that delicious crimson (*lumen purpureum juventæ*) which, in colder climates, enlivens the coarsest set of features, and renders a beautiful one irresistible:

'Youth's orient bloom, the blush of chaste desire,
The sprightly converse, and the smile divine,
(Love's gentle train,) to milder climes retire,
And full in Albion's matchless daughters shine.'

The subscription for erecting a monument to the memory of the late Sir Thomas Munro, amounts now to above one hundred thousand rupees: that for the relief of the crews of the seven ships that were wrecked by the storm, in December last, amounts to about twelve thousand.

The Right Hon. S. R. Lushington, our Governor, has graciously condescended to become Patron of the Literary Society of Madras; and we are promised the speedy appearance of the first volume of the Society's Transactions, which is said to contain several interesting communications.

There has been a good deal of sickness about Madras, during the month of January, and some cases of cholera are said to have occurred: from the Institution for boys, (viz. the Male Asylum,) there were fifteen funerals within the last month. There is an adage, 'When the devil finds men idle, he generally gives them employment;' and it seems fully verified in the Madras Army, there being three European General Courts-Martial at present sitting; viz. one at Masulapatam, one at Bangalore, and one at Trichinopoly. The former two are for the trial of officers of the Honourable Company's Army, and the last for the trial of King's soldiers. A murder of a very atrocious nature has recently been committed here by one of the Beguins, (*alias* a lady of the family,

of the Nabob of the Carnatic,) on one of her female domestics, and within the precincts of Cheapside Palace.

There are various editions of the story in circulation, but so contradictory as to render it impossible to give a correct statement of it. No doubt, however, exists as to the murder having been committed. I heard the Superintendent of police say so two days ago; and the Lady herself admits its having been perpetrated in her presence, and under her direction. She has been admitted to bail; but three of her Native servant-girls have been committed to gaol: they were participators in the act, as report states. The matter will stand over till the assizes in April next.

DEBATE AT THE EAST INDIA HOUSE.

A QUARTERLY General Court of Proprietors of East India Stock was held on Wednesday, June 18.

On the motion of the CHAIRMAN (W. Astell, Esq.), a dividend of 5½ per cent. was declared on the Company's capital stock, for the half-year commencing on the 5th of January last, and ending on the 5th of July next.

The CHAIRMAN then moved, 'That this Court do confirm the Resolution of the General Court of the 28th ult., granting to Major Cunningham, of the Bengal retired list, an allowance of 200*l.* per annum, in addition to his present pay and allowance of 130*l.* per annum.

The DEPUTY CHAIRMAN (John Loch, Esq.) seconded the motion.

General THORNTON expressed a wish, that, in granting pensions, a saving clause should always be added to the resolution, providing that the pension should only continue while the individual on whom it was bestowed 'was out of employment.'

The motion was then carried unanimously.

BYE-LAWS' COMMITTEE.

The CHAIRMAN said it was his duty to propose the annual election of 15 gentlemen to form a Committee for inspection of the bye-laws. He moved that the following gentlemen be re-elected:—Honourable Douglas Kinnaird, Mr. G. Cumming, Mr. P. Heatley, Mr. G. Grote, Mr. R. Williams, Mr. B. Barnard, Sir H. Strachey, Bart., Mr. J. Darby, Mr. J. H. Tritton, Mr. J. Carstairs, Mr. R. Twining, Mr. Hallett, and Sir J. Shaw, Bart.

The motion was unanimously agreed to.

Mr. CUMMING, on being proposed, observed that it had last year been stated in that Court, that his attendance in the Committee had not been regular. He could only say that he had been for twenty-two years a member of the Committee, and, during that time, had failed to attend but one of its meetings. The hon. Proprietor produced a letter from the Clerk of the Committee, in confirmation of his statement.

The CHAIRMAN observed that Mr. Cumming's valuable services were well known, and properly appreciated by the Company. He then stated that two of the members of the Committee had died in the course of the

year, namely, Mr. Gloworth and Mr. Lyon, whose places he proposed to supply by the election of Mr. Burney and Mr. Hodgkins, late of the Madras Service.

The motion for the election of those gentlemen was then put, and carried unanimously.

SUSPENSION OF AN INDIAN JUDGE.

The CHAIRMAN said, that a gallant Proprietor (Col. Stanhope) had given notice of his intention to bring forward a motion that day, with respect to the case of Mr. Courtenay Smith; but, not seeing the gallant Proprietor in his place, he supposed that he had abandoned his situation. The gallant Proprietor had also given notice of another motion relative to the taxation of British subjects in India, under what was commonly called the Stamp Act; but he supposed that the gallant Proprietor was satisfied with what had passed in another place on the subject, and considered the motion unnecessary.

Mr. R. JACKSON asked whether the Court of Directors had received a memorial on this subject from the merchants of Calcutta?

The CHAIRMAN said, the Court had received a memorial, not directly from the merchants of Calcutta, but from persons connected with them in this country.

INDIAN LICENSES.

The Hon. D. KINNAIRD rose to propose a question to the Chairman, which, he was inclined to think, it would afford that gentleman satisfaction to answer. The question referred to an order, which it appeared had emanated from the Court of Directors, and which had occasioned a very strong sensation in India. That order, which was signed 'Hugh Molony,' had appeared in 'The Calcutta Government Gazette,' and was dated the 27th of November, 1827. It purported to be an extract from a public letter of the Court of Directors of the 4th of July preceding; and it set forth, that individuals leaving India with an intention to return to that country, would not receive a license from the Court of Directors for that purpose, unless they produced a certificate from the authorities abroad to prove that they had conducted themselves in a manner satisfactory to the Indian Government.

The following was a copy of the official notification by the Bengal Government, regarding certificates of conduct in India:—

Fort William—General Department, Nov. 20, 1827.

'The Right Honourable the Governor-General in Council is pleased to direct that the following extract (paragraphs 18 to 20) from a public General Letter from the Hon. the Court of Directors, dated July 11 1827, be published for general information. Certificates of the nature alluded to by the Honourable Court, in the extract in question, will be granted to individuals proceeding to Europe, on their applying for the same to the Secretary of Government in the General Department.

'18. Applications are from time to time made to us by parties who have returned from India, for leave to proceed again to that country for the purpose either of following the pursuits in which they originally embarked, or of settling the affairs which have grown out of their former engagements.

'19. It frequently occurs, that the parties in question are unable to produce any document, showing that their conduct has been satisfactory to the Authorities under whom they have resided.

'20. We, therefore, desire that you will take measures for ascertaining

ing to all parties who are residing under your Presidency, either with our permission, or with that of your Government, and who may return to Europe, that, in the event of their making application for permission to proceed again to India, we shall require them to produce proof of their having conducted themselves to the satisfaction of your Government.

‘By order of the Rt. Hon. the Governor-General in Council,
‘E. MOLONY, Acting Secretary to the Government.’

This order, he believed, was intended to have a very limited application, and grew out of the circumstance of persons having applied for leave to return to India from whom the Company could obtain no proof that they had ever been there; but, the regulation having been promulgated in a general manner in India, it had very reasonably caused a great impression. It was felt that every gentleman about to leave India, with the intention of returning, would be compelled to sue to obtain, as it were, a verdict of ‘Not Guilty’ in his favour. The regulation likewise placed in the hands of Government a formidable power, since it authorised them to prevent the return of any person to India whom they might consider a troublesome fellow, because he had offered a pertinacious opposition to their measures, or might have been the abettor of that horrid crime in India—free publication. He trusted that the Chairman would give some explanation on this subject.

The CHAIRMAN observed, that it was impossible for him to say what impressions the order in question had produced on the minds of people in India. He could only answer as to the fact, that the Court of Directors had ordered the Indian Government to promulgate the regulation in question. The Court was aware that no person could proceed to India without the consent of the Court of Directors and the Board of Control, and that before he obtained such consent he must enter into a covenant to conduct himself in India as a good and faithful subject. If he fulfilled the terms of the covenant, where could be the difficulty or the hardship of obtaining proof of the fact? This rule was made for persons who were not of this class. It was notorious that many persons got out to India without leave from the Home Authorities, and it was as well known, that, notwithstanding this irregularity, they were permitted to remain, if they did not conduct themselves offensively, or, if the Honourable Proprietor pleased, become ‘troublesome fellows.’ The Court of Directors had a right to know how individuals had conducted themselves in India before they permitted them to return. No honest man need be under the slightest apprehension that the rule would affect him. The Court of Directors could not be responsible for the impressions which the regulation had made in India. In framing it, they had only exercised the discretion which the Act of Parliament confided to them, and he thought they had exercised it wisely. (*Hear!*)

Mr. R. JACKSON thought the wording of the order was not sufficiently precise, and that it left parties too much at the discretion of the Indian Authorities. Conduct which might be satisfactory to one Government, another would deprecate and punish.

Sir C. FORBES was of opinion, that, so long as the law authorised the Court of Directors to refuse any person permission to proceed to India, it was but reasonable, and could be considered no hardship, that individuals wishing to return to that country should produce proof that they had executed the covenant by which they had bound themselves. He could not conceive, that any gentleman, on quitting India, could have the

slightest objection to apply for a certificate of his good conduct. He had heard it argued that there should be no restriction on the intercourse between this country and India: that he considered to be a question of vital importance, affecting the very existence of India as a colony. He would not, on this occasion, pronounce an opinion on the subject. (Hear!)

Mr. WIGRAM said that the wording of the order appeared to have been misunderstood. It did not require parties to produce certificates before the Court of Directors, but only reasonable proof.

Mr. D. KINNAIRD said, his object had been answered by the explanation which had taken place, and he wished not to press the matter further.

BURNING OF HINDOO WIDOWS.

Mr. R. JACKSON, who, with Mr. Poynder, had formally notified his intention to the Court of Directors to submit to the General Court a motion on the subject of Suttees, called the attention of the Proprietors to it in a very brief speech. Having alluded to the cruel waste of human life consequent on these barbarous sacrifices, he concluded by moving, 'That the Court of Directors be requested to lay before the Proprietors all proceedings which have taken place, and all the information they may have obtained, with respect to the burning of Hindoo widows, since the resolution of the General Court of the 27th of March, 1827, calling on them to adopt such means as appear best calculated to put an end to that horrible practice.'

The CHAIRMAN said, that, in consequence of the resolution of the Court of Proprietors in March last, the Court of Directors had transmitted two letters to the Governments of Bombay and Bengal, urging them, respectively, to use their best exertions towards the suppression of the practice of Suttees. There had not been sufficient time to receive an answer to those letters.

The letters were then read by the Clerk.

Captain MAXFIELD expressed a hope that no prejudices in this country would be powerful enough to drive the Company to interfere in a violent manner with the prejudices of the Natives of India.

Mr. D. KINNAIRD also deprecated the adoption of any violent measures.

Mr. S. DIXON said, the Court ought not, with regard to this question, to seek any favour with people out of doors.

Mr. POYNDER complained that the Court of Directors had not communicated to the Indian Government the resolution of the Court of Directors of March, 1827. It was likewise remarkable, that no report of the debate which preceded the adoption of that resolution was given in 'The Calcutta-Gazette,' which, on other occasions, invariably noticed all matters that occurred in England that had reference to India. This paper, however, though it contained no report of the day's debate in that Court, published a paragraph respecting it, which purported to be a translation from a Native paper. The paragraph was as follows:

'On the 28th of March of the present English year, in a meeting at the East India House in England, one Mr. Poynder made a proposal to put a stop to the burning of widows; and it was his wish that authority should be invested in the Bengal Government wholly to abolish that practice. Against this proposal of Mr. Poynder, Colonel Stanhope observed: "We need not meddle with the religious practices of the Hindoos; this custom has been in vogue among them for a long course of

time, and what necessity is there at present for its discontinuance?" Four or five other persons (Directors) of the meeting were of the same opinion; two only endeavoured to have the practice abolished, and the subject was therefore postponed to be considered at some future meeting.

'We are divided between joy and regret on hearing this news: we are exceedingly glad that any measures for the discontinuance of concremation were prevented by Colonel Stanhope and other gentlemen of his opinion; and we feel sorrow that there should be any gentlemen inclined to interfere with a custom which is consonant to our Sastras, and which we have practised for a great length of time without interruption. As we trust that our religious institutes will never be opposed while we are under the subjection of the equitable and glorious King of England, we imagine that the subject of abolishing concremation, which has been now stopped, will not be agitated again.'

The most learned authorities in this country had informed him that this paragraph could not be a translation from the Native language, and therefore he supposed it had been fabricated for the purpose of doing injury to the cause of humanity.

The CHAIRMAN admitted that the resolution of the Court of Proprietors had not been transmitted to India; but those who had heard the letters of the Court of Directors read, must be aware that the substance of the resolution had been stated in them. Nobody, he thought, could doubt that it was the most anxious desire of the Directors to adopt all safe and practicable measures for putting an end to the revolting practice complained of. (*Hear, hear!*) With respect to 'The Calcutta Gazette,' he begged to state, that that paper was not under the control of the Indian Government or the Court of Directors. He was sorry, however, that it had not done justice to the Hon. Member's speech. (*A laugh.*)

The original motion was then withdrawn, and the letters of the Court of Directors were ordered to be printed for the use of the Proprietors.

CAPTAIN PRESCOTT'S CASE.

Sir C. FORBES rose to call the attention of the Court to the case of Captain Prescott, which appeared to him to be one of peculiar hardship. He was not about to find fault with the proceedings that had taken place on the subject. The Court of Directors were, he thought, bound to take the measures which they adopted. He gave them all possible credit for their good intentions. He must also admit that it appeared to him to be chiefly by Captain Prescott's own proceedings that he was placed in the situation in which he at present stood. It was the extreme anxiety of Captain Prescott to stand well in the opinion, not of his colleagues only, but also of the Proprietors and the public generally, that had induced him to make a declaration in that Court, which, perhaps, was not called for. Captain Prescott having been brought to trial, and acquitted by a special Jury of his countrymen, after a full and patient investigation, he conceived that, up to that moment, his character should have been considered as cleared from all imputation of a criminal nature. (*Hear, hear!*) If Captain Prescott had been guilty of a want of due caution and prudence in some of his proceedings, God forbid they should be disposed to punish him severely on that ground! It appeared to him that Captain Prescott had already been sufficiently punished: even if he had been guilty of all that was laid to his charge, he could not have suffered a punishment more severe than he had already endured, from the agitation

and distress of mind in which he had been kept during the last fourteen months. (*Hear !*) He allowed that all that was inevitable up to the period of the trial and acquittal, he might lament; but could not blame, the proceedings which had taken place. He was not sufficiently in possession of the circumstances that had occurred since the trial, to warrant him in blaming the Court of Directors. He, however, understood that a resolution had been come to in the Court of Directors, on what particular grounds he did not know, to withhold from Captain Prescott, for a certain period, his usual share of patronage. It might be that this resolution was grounded on the declaration of the gallant Director, that he deserved to stand well in the opinion of the Proprietors before he received his patronage. He (Sir C. Forbes) considered that a declaration of that nature was uncalled for, after the gallant Director had been tried and honourably acquitted. At all events, the papers relating to the case Captain Prescott himself seconded the motion for printing them) had now been a considerable time before the Court; and he thought, that, considering the extreme sufferings of the gallant Director, it would be an act of humanity to step forward in order to rescue him from his present situation. (*Hear, hear !*) It was the general opinion, that the gallant Captain, having been acquitted, ought to be restored to all his rights and privileges. He conceived there could be no objection to the motion which he was about to make. He came forward on the present occasion purely on public grounds, though, if it were necessary, he could bear testimony to the private worth of Captain Prescott. He could, from his knowledge, state, that no man could display more kindness and benevolence in the distribution of his patronage than Captain Prescott. No Member of the Court of Directors was so entirely disinterested in its distribution. Captain Prescott had been in the habit of bestowing his writerships and cadetships on the sons of his brother commanders. He had constantly yielded to the applications of widows, and of the guardians of orphans. (*Hear !*) He believed, that, in Captain Prescott's recommendatory list, the name of a single lord or lady was not to be found. He believed that the Gallant Director was perfectly unconscious of the abuse which undoubtedly had taken place. A more honourable, kind-hearted, and benevolent man than Captain Prescott did not exist. He had known him for upwards of thirty years, and first at Bombay as Commander of the *Charlotte*. There his character was that of a good-natured fellow, always willing to oblige, though, perhaps, somewhat volatile, and inclined to say more than he really meant; but that he could ever be guilty intentionally of a dishonourable act, he believed to be perfectly untrue. Under these circumstances, he begged to submit to the favourable consideration of the Court a resolution which he had drawn up. He requested all who heard him to judge of Captain Prescott as they would be judged of themselves. All were liable to errors; all were sometimes guilty of a want of prudence and caution; and God forbid that such offence should be punished with severity! Let them do towards others as they would expect to be done to themselves. (*Hear, hear !*) He concluded by moving: 'That the Court of Proprietors do fully approve of the measures adopted by the Court of Directors in bringing the recent case of abuse of patronage before a legal tribunal; and, although Captain Prescott appears to have acted incautiously and imprudently, yet, having been acquitted by the verdict of a Jury of the charge against him; and the Court of Proprietors being also satisfied that he was not actuated by any corrupt motives, they are not disposed to withdraw their confidence from him as a Member of the Direction.'

Captain MAXWELL said that he had examined the papers, and felt himself justified in seconding the motion.

The CHAIRMAN requested the attention of the Court for a few moments. The Court of Directors were induced to prefer a charge against certain persons, and found it necessary to include one of their body in the accusation. Before the trial came on, the usual distribution of patronage took place. Captain Prescott, on that occasion, requested that his share of patronage might be withheld until the result of the trial was known. After the trial, the circumstance had occurred to which the Hon. Baronet had alluded. No resolution was passed in the Court of Directors, but it was intimated in a friendly disposition to Captain Prescott, that, if the question were put as to his receiving the usual share of patronage, certain Members of the Direction would feel themselves obliged to oppose it. This information had been communicated to Captain Prescott in kindness and confidence, and no step had been taken subsequently.

Mr. D. KINNAIRD said, he understood the practical effect of the motion to be the restoration to Captain Prescott of powers which the Act of Parliament gave to every Director. Before he proceeded further, he might be permitted to offer his tribute of sincere admiration of the manliness, kindness, and simplicity of character which the hon. Baronet had displayed in bringing this question forward, and which distinguished every act he performed. (*Hear, hear!*) On no occasion had the worthy Baronet done himself more honour than in his attempt to place Captain Prescott fully and fairly before the world. At present the gallant Director stood in a very equivocal position. He imputed no blame to the Court of Directors on that account: they had themselves been placed in a difficult situation since the trial. But, they being in that state of difficulty, he expected them to take some decided step to extricate themselves from it. He wished to cast no imputation on them; he believed them to have been quite bewildered by the novelty of their position; but he considered it a positive duty which they owed to themselves and to the Court of Proprietors, to adopt a straightforward and decided course on this subject. The matter having been submitted to a jury, it was then for the Court of Directors, or Court of Proprietors, if they thought it necessary, to propose a vote of censure on Captain Prescott, if they considered his conduct improper, although it might have been strictly legal. Neither the Court of Directors nor the Court of Proprietors had adopted any such proceeding; and, as far as he was acquainted with the circumstances of the case, Captain Prescott might be considered acquitted of any thing but weakness. He understood that some of the appointments given by Captain Prescott had been revoked, and the parties who received them made the victims. He considered this a very questionable proceeding on the part of the Court of Directors, as the appointments were not illegal. The Court of Directors ought, in his opinion, to have abstained from doing more than bringing the parties to trial. The Court of Directors were not to judge of the qualifications of persons whom the Proprietors had appointed to sit together behind the bar. It was not fair, he thought, to condemn Captain Prescott, as it were, by a side-wind. If he were worthy of censure, he ought to be visited with it in a direct manner. For his part, he was prepared to restore Captain Prescott to his privileges. It might be objected to all the Directors that they more or less studied their own advantage in the distribution of their patronage. In canvassing a Scotch county, would not the circumstance of a candidate being near being made a Director be sure to procure him a majority of votes? (*Hear, and laughter.*) Was not that corruption? (*Hear!*) He had not heard

it whispered that Captain Prescott had been influenced by any motives of an interested nature. He appeared to have confided too much in the honour of near relations, not suspecting that they could make him the instrument of an improper disposal of his patronage. (*Hear, hear!*)

Mr. POYNTER said he had not read the papers, and, therefore, he could not vote for a proposition which went positively to acquit Captain Prescott.

Mr. R. JACKSON said, he never knew a resolution, even remotely approaching to this in importance, to have been brought forward without due notice. He could not agree to a resolution of this nature, which implied some degree of control over the Directors, without reading the documents. The hon. Bart. had told them that Captain Prescott had not touched one fragment of this polluted bribe; but, though this gentleman was so far incorrupt, yet he (Mr. Jackson) could not accede to a proposition of the kind now before the Court, without imputing some degree of blame to Captain Prescott. There was, in one of those letters, an avowal of Captain Prescott which had very great weight with him; and, though the tenderest feelings might have led Captain Prescott to a dereliction of his duty, yet he (Mr. Jackson) would not be acting a manly part, if, when the subject came fairly before the Court, he did not state that there was such a letter as that to which he alluded. He would blame Captain Prescott as gently as he could; but he would not suffer himself to be betrayed into this wholesale kind of acquittal.

The CHAIRMAN said, that, at a Quarterly Court, any question could be discussed without previous notice. The inconvenience that had resulted from the practice had, however, caused notices to be generally given. He thought that practice should have been followed on the present occasion; and, if he did not rise in the first instance to offer a suggestion to that effect, it was only because he felt the subject to be one of difficulty and delicacy. (*Hear!*)

General THORNTON protested against the doctrine, that it was necessary to give notice of a question brought forward at a Quarterly Court. If the Hon. Bart. did not postpone his motion, he would feel it his duty to vote in its favour.

Mr. STEWART said, that the papers relative to Capt. Prescott's case had now been before the Proprietors for two months. Any person could make himself acquainted with their contents in an hour or two. He had read the papers, and it was the firm conviction of his mind that Captain Prescott had not been actuated by any corrupt motive, though he had been guilty of imprudence; and of that the resolution before the Court did not acquit him. He objected to further delay, and thought that the Court ought to come at once to a decision. The conduct of the Court of Directors, with respect to the prosecution, was highly to be applauded. They had done their duty manfully and properly; and the Proprietors would now do theirs by confirming the acquittal of Captain Prescott unanimously, (as he trusted they would,) clearing him from all imputation, and restoring him to the full and entire exercise of the functions of his office. (*Hear!*)

Mr. GAHAGAN was of opinion that the time which had elapsed since the printing of the papers, had not been sufficient to enable the Proprietors to give them the consideration which they deserved. The hon. Baronet would best consult the object which he had in view by consenting to postpone the motion. If a man thought his character involved, he should not seek to obtain an acquittal *per saltum*. The hon. Director had certainly been acquitted by a jury; but he had himself declared that

he did not value that acquittal, unless he was also acquitted by the Proprietors. It would be better to give notice of the motion, and then, if the hon. Director were acquitted, he would be acquitted with much better grace than he could now.

Mr. FRASHFIELD recommended the hon. Baronet to postpone his motion, but declared his intention to support it when again brought forward. He would, he said, rather be Captain Prescott than the individuals who gave the advice that he should be included in the prosecution.

Mr. PATERSON said, he had not read the papers, and, as there were, doubtless, many Proprietors in the same situation, he would move that the debate be adjourned to that day fortnight.

After a short conversation, in which Mr. Weeding, Sir C. Forbes, and Mr. D. Kinnaid participated, Mr. Paterson's motion was agreed to unanimously, and the Court then adjourned.

CIVIL AND MILITARY APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS, AND CHANGES IN INDIA.

[B. signifies Bombay—M. Madras—and C. Calcutta.]

ALDOUS, Brev. Capt., and Lieut. 38th N. I., to be Capt. of a Company, v. Fleming, prom.—C. Dec. 28.

Agnew, E. J., Assist. Surg., to do duty with Artill. at Dum Dnn.—C. Dec. 15.

Armstrong, R., Lieut.-Col. H. M.'s Royal Reg., to have command Southern Div. of Army, during the absence of Maj.-Gen. Campbell.—M. Jan. 4.

Athill, Lieut., to be Assist. to Chief Engineer, v. Capt. Jervis, resigned the appointment.—B. Dec. 1.

Ashton, W., Esq., to be Sub-Collector of Sea Customs at Madras.—Jan. 18.

Anstruther, P., Esq., to be Collector of Customs, of the District of Colombo, —Ceylon, Jan. 8.

Becher, G., Lieut.-Col. 10th Light Cav. on furlough to Eur.—C. Dec. 28.

Blaquiere, G. D., Lieut. 8th N. I., to be Adj. v. Rippon, prom.—M. Dec. 28.

Boardman, E., Lieut.-Col. 45th N. I., to command Trichinopoly.—M. Jan. 8.

Brodie, J., Lieut.-Col. 9th N. I., to command Vellore, v. Fair, on furlough. M. Jan. 8.

Balmain, A., Lieut.-Col. 30th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 4.

Browne, F. H., En8. 23d. N. I., to be Lieut. v. Ramsay, dec.—B. Dec. 4.

Browne, C. H., Lieut. 23d N. I., to be Acting Quart.-Mast. v. French.—B. Dec. 4.

Bagnold, M. E., Capt. 23d N. I., to be Maj. v. Deschamps, prom.—B. Dec. 4.

Baker, G. P., Maj. 38th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col. v. Lloyd, invalidated.—C. Dec. 28.

Barstow, J. A., Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quart.-Mast. in absence of Lieut. Smith.—C. Dec. 13.

Benson, R., Capt. 11th N. I., to be Assist. Sec. to Military department, v. Maj. Lockett.—C. Dec. 28.

Bainbridge, I. D., Cadet, prom. to Cornet.—C. Jan. 1.

Barring, J. D., Cornet 1st Light Cav., permitted to resign.—C. Jan. 4.

Bogle, A., Lieut. 2d N. I., appointed to officiate as Dep. Judge Adv. Gen. to Dinapore Div., in absence of Capt. Steel.—C. Dec. 18.

Brown, P., Lieut., Interp. and Quart.-Mast. 29th N. I., suspended, not sufficiently qualified.—C. Dec. 21.

Brown, Lieut.-Col., on furl. to Eur. for health.—B. Dec. 5.

Brown, B., Mr., to be third Judge of the Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit for the Division of Calcutta.—C. Feb. 14.

Braddon, W., Mr., to be fourth Judge and Magistrate of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit, for the Division of Calcutta.—C. Feb. 14.

Barlow, R., Mr., to be Judge and Mag. of the 2d Pergunnahs.—C. Feb. 14.

- Barlow, R. W., Mr., to be Registrar of Bhanguipore, and Joint-Magistrate, stationed at Moughyr.—C. Feb. 14.
- Barwell, A. C., Mr., to be Salt Agent at Cuttack.—C. Feb. 14.
- Blagrave, C., Mr., to be Salt Agent at Jessore.—C. Feb. 14.
- Brown, C. J., Esq., to be Head-Assist. to the Accountant-Gen.—M. Jan. 29.
- Bannerman, E., Esq., to be Senior Deputy Registrar to the Court of Sadra and Foudjarry Udalut, and Dep. Persian Translator to Government.—M. Feb. 1.
- Bowes, F., Lieut.-Col., rem. from the 13th to the 19th N. I.—M. Jan. 23.
- Bullock, S., Capt., Deputy Judge Advocate, to be attached, to the V. District, and to reside at St. Thomas's Mount.—M. Jan. 28.
- Babington, C. S., Ens. 15th N. I., on furlough to Neilgherry Hills, for health.—M. Feb. 1.
- Batten, G. Maxwell, Mr., to be Assistant to the Secretary to the Government in the Persian Department.—C. Jan. 18.
- Brown, W., Esq., Additional Government Commissioner for Claims withdrawn from the Carnatic Fund.—M. Jan. 25.
- Bishop, C. T. G., Lieut.-Col. 28th N. I., to com. Trichinopoly, v. Boardman, on furl.—M. Jan. 22.
- Bullock, S., Capt. 3d Light Cav., to be a Dep. Judge-Adv.-Gen.—M. Jan. 22.
- Bradford, W. J., Capt. 35th N. I., to be Dep. Judge-Adv.-Gen., to the troops serving on the coast of Tenasserim.—M. Jan. 22.
- Budd, R. H. J., Ens. 3d L. Inf., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 25.
- Blunt, W., Mr., to be a Puisne Judge of the Courts of Sudder-Deivanny and Nezamut-Adawlut.—C. Jan. 3.
- Barwell, E. R., Mr., to be third Member of the Board of Rev., Lower Province.—C. Jan. 3.
- Buchanan, J., Sen.-Lieut. and Brev. Capt. 1st L. C., to be Capt., v. Larens, retired.—M. Jan. 8.
- Burt, N. M., Sen.-Lieut. 8th L. Cav., to be Capt., v. Gordon, dec.—M. Jan. 8.
- Brady, A., Lieut. 33d N. I., to take rank, v. Smith, res.—M. Jan. 8.
- Bayley, T., Lieut. 43d N. I., to take rank, v. Moor, dec.—M. Jan. 8.
- Boardman, E., Lieut.-Col. 45th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—M. Jan. 15.
- Briggs, G., Lieut., rem. from 2d to 1st Brig. Horse Artil.—M. Jan. 19.
- Bristowe, W., Ens. 4th N. I., on furl. to Masulipatam for health.—M. Jan. 19.
- Blair, D. A., Esq., to be Collector and Prov.-Judge of Batticaloa, v. M. Wilmot, Esq.—Ceylon, Jan. 8.
- Conway, H., Lieut. and Adj. 53d N. I., to act as Station Staff at Bareilly, in absence of Brig.-Maj. Hay.—C. Dec. 10.
- Charlton, A., Lieut., 6th extra N. I., to be Adj. to 2d Misseree Bat. v. Lawrence, resigned.—C. Dec. 13.
- Comyn, P. T., Lieut.-Col., rem. from 53d to 24th N. I.—C. Dec. 19.
- Castill, Jehosaphat, Surg., on furl. to Eur.—C. Dec. 28.
- Cock, Jas., Lieut.-Col., Comm. 12th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—C. Dec. 28.
- Corbett, Jas., Assist.-Surg., app. to 4th Light Cav.—C. Dec. 20.
- Conolly, H. V., Esq., to be Head-Assist. to Principal Collec. and Magis. of Bel-lary.—M. Jan. 4.
- Chippendale, S., Assist.-Surg., permitted to enter on general duties of the Army.—M. Dec. 21.
- Cole, R., Assist.-Surg., app. to do duty under Surg. of 1st Brig. of Horse Artill.—M. Dec. 21.
- Cooke, C. J., 2d Lieut. Artill., posted to 3d Batt.—M. Dec. 22.
- Cunningham, W., Capt., 44th N. I., to act as Assist. Qu. Mas.-Gen., to troops in Doab, in absence of O'Donnoghue, on furl.—M. Jan. 4.
- Campbell, Sir Arch., Maj.-Gen., H. M.'s service, temporarily app. to command Southern Div. of Army.—M. Jan. 4.
- Croad, F., Lieut. H. M.'s 20th Foot, to act as Brigade Major to Field Detachment of Bombay troops, with the Doab force.—B. Dec. 17.
- Crawford, S., Esq., to be Assist. to Accountant-Gen.—M. Jan. 29.
- Clive, R., Esq., to be Chief Secretary to the Government in the Muz. Depart.—M. Feb. 1.

- Chamier, H., Esq., to be Secretary to the Government in the Mil. Department.—M. Feb. 1.
- Coombs, J. M., Lieut.-Col., retn. from the 52d to the 26th N. I.—M. Jan. 23.
- Cotton, R. C., Lieut. Eng., to be Assist. to the Civ. Eng. in the Centre Div., & De Butts.—M. Jan. 18.
- Clissholm, A., Lieut. 30th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 22.
- Chinnery, W. C., Lieut. 4th N. I., to be Quart.-Mas. Interp. and Paym., v. Huldane.—M. Jan. 25.
- Conolly, H. V., Esq., to be Head Assist. to the Principal Collector of Tanjore.—M. Jan. 18.
- Campbell, R., Capt. 43d N. I., to take rank, v. Crucroft, dec.—M. Jan. 8.
- Cotton, H. C., Capt. Eng., to take rank, v. Grant, dec.—M. Jan. 8.
- Considim, D. H., Lieut. 21st N. I., to take rank, v. Sterling, pensioned.—M. Jan. 8.
- Coxe, W. B., Capt. 43d N. I. to take rank, v. Budd, dec.—M. Jan. 8.
- Crowe, R., Sen. Capt. 46th N. I., to be Maj., v. Hunter, prom.—M. Jan. 8.
- Codrington, R., Lieut. 46th N. I., furl. extended to enable him to rejoin.—M. Jan. 19.
- Daniell, A., Cornet, having declined his appointment, is struck off the strength of the Army.—C. Dec. 28.
- Denty, H. F., Maj. 53d N. I., on furl. to Eur.—C. Dec. 28.
- Desormeaux, C., Surg., to be Garrison-Surg. of Vizagapatam, v. Underwood.—M. Dec. 28.
- Deschamps, H. R., sen. Maj. Inf. to Lieut.-Col. v. Hicks, dec.—B. Dec. 4.
- Durantoy, Lieut. 49th Mad. N. I., to take charge of European and Native Detachments at Bologna.—B. Dec. 29.
- Daw, James, Surgeon, to be Garrison-Surg. of Surat, v. Patoz on furl.—B. Dec. 17.
- Decluzcau, Capt. Artill., to act as Superintend. of Bazars, in absence of Lieut. Mars, on furl. to the Presidency.—B. Jan. 12.
- Dazell, J. A., Esq., to be Principal Collector and Magistrate of Cuddapah.—M. Feb. 1.
- Davis, W. D., Esq., to be Sub-Collector and Joint Mag. of the Southern Div. of Arcot.—M. Feb. 1.
- Davidson, R., Assist. Surg., posted to 2d Brig. Horse Artill.—M. Jan. 23.
- Dunlop, W. W., Ens. 50th N. I., furl. extended to enable him to rejoin his reg.—M. Feb. 1.
- De Butts, A., Lieut. Eng., to be Assist. to the Super. Eng. in the Presidency Div. v. Pears.—M. Jan. 18.
- Davidson, R., Sen. Assist.-Surg., to be Surg., v. Dean, retired.—M. Jan. 25.
- Drury, G. D., Esq., to be Collector and Magis. of Tinnencley.—M. Jan. 22.
- Down, R., Sen. Cornet 8th Light Cav., to be Lieut., v. Watts, dec.—M. Jan. 8.
- Davie, C., 7th N. F. to be Lieut., v. Stapylton, resigned.—M. Jan. 7.
- Dyer, E., Lieut. 46th N. I., to be Capt. v. Crewe prom.—M. Jan. 8.
- Dyke, P. A., Esq., to be Collector of Trincomalee, and Agent of Govern. for Tamankadewé, v. Anstruther.—Ceylon, Jan. 8.
- Etang, E. de l', Ens. 68th N. I., to be Sub.-Assist. in Hon. Comp.'s Study v. Braeken, dec.—C. Dec. 28.
- Fleming, J., Capt. 38th N. I., to be Maj., v. Baker, prom.—C. Dec. 28.
- Forbes, G., Mr., admitted Assist.-Surg.—C. Jan. 4.
- Fair, Alex., Lieut.-Col., retn. from 24th to 53d N. I.—C. Dec. 19.
- Fair, Alex., Lieut.-Col. 51st N. I., perm. to resign command of Vellore.—M. Dec. 28, and on furl. to Eur.
- Fawcett, H., Lieut., 1st Light Cav., to act as Brig.-Maj. on northern district of Guzerat.—B. Dec. 3.
- French, P. T., Lieut., to be Adj. 23d N. I., v. Ramsay, dec.—B. Dec. 4.
- Fallon, T. D., Lieut. 7th N. I., to be Adj., v. Parr, prom.—B. Dec. 10.
- Fallon, D., Assist.-Surg., to have medical charge of Invalids at Panwell.—B. Dec. 10.
- Forster, J. T., Lieut., Quar.-Mast. of Marine Batt., to act as Interp. to 7th N. I.—B. Dec. 17.

- Fraser, W. C.**, Lieut.-Col. 10th N. I., to command the Presidency Cantonment v. Boardman.—M. Jan. 22.
- Fréete, C. R.**, Ens. of Inf., to take rank from Jan. 3.—M. Jan. 25.
- Forbes, The Hon. R.**, to be extra Assist. to the Courts of Sudder, Dewanny, and Nizamut, Adawlut.—C. Jan. 3.
- Favell, J. C. N.**, Lieut. 1st Light Cav., to take rank, v. Lane, pensioned.—M. Jan. 8.
- Gould, W. B.**, Lieut., to be Adj. to 42d N. I., in absence of Lieut. Forthwe.—C. Dec. 13.
- Grant, W.**, Lieut., Interp. and Qu.-Master 27th N. I., perm. to resign.—C. Dec. 14.
- Garret, C.**, Cornet, 9th Light Cav., to be Lieut. v. Sanderson promoted.—C. Dec. 28.
- Grant, J.**, Assist.-Surg., to officiate as Apothecary in the absence of Surgeon Muston, on furl.—C. Jan. 4.
- Gahagan, T.**, Esq., to be Judge and Crim. Judge of Malabar.—M. Jan. 4.
- Grimes, J.**, Sen. Ens., 8th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Lucas prom.—M. Dec. 28.
- Greenhull, J. D.**, Lieut.-Col. Com., rem. from 34th C. L. I., to 37th N. I.—M. Dec. 24.
- Goodenough, Edm.**, Ens., posted to 25th N. I.—M. Dec. 24.
- Graham, H. G.**, Assist.-Surg., app. to do duty under Med. Officer, in charge of His Majesty's 13th Light Dragoons.—M. Jan. 8.
- Gregory, A. W.**, Lieut. 3d Light Cav., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. Dec. 22.
- Grant, Gregory, Mr.**, to be first Senior Assist.-Judge and Crim.-Judge of Surat.—B. Dec. 24.
- Gillum, P. H.**, Capt. to Art., as Assist.-Adj.-Gen., with Guicawar Subsid. Force, in the absence of Capt. Leighton, on furl.—B. Dec. 3.
- Gillum, R. W.**, Capt., to command in northern districts of Guzerat, in absence of Lieut.-Col. P. Delamotte, on sick certificate.—B. Dec. 17.
- Grant, R.**, Esq., to be Sub-Collector and joint Magis. for the Northern Div. of Arcot.—M. Feb. 1.
- Glass, A. M.**, Eps. 49th N. I., on furl. Bolarum.—M. Feb. 1.
- Garstin, C.**, Mr., to be principal Assist. to the Agent to the Gov.-Gen. in Saugor and the Nerbudda Territories.—C. Jan. 11.
- Grote, F.**, Lieut., to be junior Assist. to the Gov.-Gen. in Saugor, and the Nerbudda Territories.—C. Jan. 11.
- Gascoigne, E. J.**, Lieut., to be Quart.-Mast, Interp., and Paym. v. Chisholm.—M. Jan. 22.
- Grant, A.**, Mr., to be Registrar of the Zillah Court at the Sudder station of the 24th Pergunnahs.—C. Jan. 3.
- Gardner, R.**, Esq., to be Head Assist. to the Principal Collec. of the Northern Div. of Arcot.—M. Jan. 18.
- Glass, E. P.**, Esq., to be Head Assist. to the Princip. Coll. of Bellary.—M. Jan. 18.
- Garrard, W.**, Lieut.-Col. Eng., to take rank, v. De Havillaud, retired.—M. Jan. 8.
- Grantham, G.**, Lieut. 43d N. I., to take rank, v. William, retired.—M. Jan. 8.
- Hubbert, J. K.**, Ensign, 7th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Parr, prom.—B. Dec. 4.
- Home, D.**, Mr., to be Assist. to the Sec. to the Board of Revenue in Western Provinces.—C. Dec. 27.
- Hollings, G. E.**, Cadet, admitted to Infantry, and prom. to Ensign.—C. Dec. 28.
- Hopkins, P.**, Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quart.-Mast. to 27th N. I., in absence of Lieut. Grant, on furl.—C. Dec. 10.
- Halhead, H.**, Lieut., to act as Adj. to 7th Light Cav., in absence of Lieut. Phillips, on furl.—C. Dec. 11.
- Hunter, F.**, Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quart.-Mast. to 53d N. I., in absence of Lieut. Wintour, off duty.—C. Dec. 18.
- Harris, P.**, Lieut., to act as Adj. to left wing of 2d Extra N. I., while absent from head-quarters.—C. Dec. 20.

- Hodges, C. W., Lieut. 5th Light Cav., permitted to resign his situation as second in command of 6th Local Horse.—C. Dec. 20.
- Horseley, John, Esq., to be additional Sub-Collect. and Joint Magis. of Canara.—M. Jan. 4.
- Hole, P. S., posted to Carnatic Eur. Vet. Batt.—M. Dec. 24.
- Henderson, W., Capt., to be Paymaster at the Presidency, v. Dunsterville.—B. Dec. 8.
- Holland, J., Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quart.-Mast. to 21st N. I., during absence of Lieut. Ennis, on duty.—B. Dec. 17.
- Hay, W. T., Cornet, 3d Light Cav., on furl. to Eur. for health.—B. Jan. 10.
- Hare, W., Mr., to be Assist. to the Magistrate and to the Collec. of the City and District of Dacca.—C. Feb. 14.
- Hill, D., Esq., to be Third Judge of the Provincial Court of Appeal and Circuit for the Northern Division.
- Harris, C. Esq., to be First Judge of the Provincial Court of Appeal and Circuit for the Centre Div.—M. Jan. 25.
- Haldane, E. Esq., Lieut. 4th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 22.
- Halkett, R. C., Mr., to be Assist. to the Magistrate and to the Collector of Nuddeh.—C. Jan. 3.
- Home, Sir Jas. (Bart.), to be Malayalam Translator to Government.—M. Jan. 18.
- Harris, Charles, Esq., to be Principal Coll. of Cuddapah.—M. Jan. 18.
- Horsley, John, Esq., to be Sub Coll. of Tinnevely.—M. Jan. 25.
- Hunter, G., Lieut.-Col. Inf., to take rank, v. Purchas, retired.—M. Jan. 8.
- Henderson, P., Sen. Maj. Inf. (from 46th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col. in succession to Yates, prom.—M. Jan. 8.
- Horne, J., Lieut., rem. from 1st to 2d Brig. Horse Artil.—M. Jan. 19.
- Huskinson, J. W., Esq., to be Prov. Judge of Tincomalee, v. Dyke.—Ceylon, Jan. 8.
- Illingworth, W. C., 2d Light Cav., on furl. to Eur.—B. Jan. 15.
- Jourdan, H. G., Capt. 10th N. I., the remaining portion of his leave of absence cancelled.—M. Jan. 28.
- Jones, T. W., Lieut. 2d Eur. Reg., to be Adj. v. Hopper, deceased.—M. Jan. 22.
- Jackson, C. C. M., to be Registrar of the Zillah Court at Bahar.—C. Jan. 3.
- Johnson, A. B., Ens. 46th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Dyer prom.—M. Jan. 8.
- Jackson, W. B., Ens. 25th N. I., placed at disposal of the Resid. at Hyderabad.—M. Jan. 15.
- Jackson, G., Ens. 11th N. I., placed at disposal of the Resid. at Hyderabad.—M. Jan. 15.
- James, H., Lieut., 18th N. I., to act as Interp. to 20th Light Cav., in absence of Ottley.—B. Jan. 12.
- Kennett, C. R., Lieut.-Col. 37th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—C. Dec. 28.
- Kindersley, N. W., Esq., to be Principal Collector and Magistrate at Tanjore.—M. Jan. 22.
- Lindsay, G. M., to be Sub-Collector of Sirpoora.—C. Dec. 27.
- Low, J. H., Lieut., to act as Adj. to 39th N. I.—C. Dec. 14.
- Lushington, J. S., Esq., to be Government Agent to his Highness the Nawab of the Carnatic.—M. Jan. 4.
- Lucas, F. B., sen. Lieut. 8th N. I., to be Capt., v. Hale, invalided.—M. Dec. 21.
- Langley, E. A., Lieut. 3d Light Cav., to be Adj., v. Arbuthnot, on furl.—M. Jan. 4.
- Lang, R. W., Lieut. 37th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 4.
- Little, James, Esq. to be Sheriff for ensuing year, v. D. Seton, Esq.—B. Dec. 24.
- Lyons, H. Lieut., 23d N. I., to be Capt., v. Bagnold, prom.—B. Dec. 3.
- Litchfield, G., Lieut.-Col. 2d Light Cav., to take command of Malwa Field-force, in absence of Col. Salter on duty.—B. Dec. 17.
- Landon, S., Lieut., 16th N. I., to act as Interp. in Hindoostance to 3d N. I.—B. Dec. 17.
- Lang, W., Lieut., to act as Adj. to 21st N. I., in absence of Lieut. Ennis, on duty.—B. Dec. 17.
- Landon, S., Lieut., to act as Quar-Mast. and Interp. to 10th regt. in absence of Lieut. Crispin.—B. Jan. 12.

- Lord, Hugh, Esq., to be 1st Judge of the Provincial Court of Appeal and Circuit for the Northern Division.—M. Feb. 1.
- Lewin, M., Esq., to be a Sub-Collector in the Province of Canara.—M. Jan. 18.
- Lawe, A., Capt. Eng., to take rank in succession to Melbourne.—M. Jan. 8.
- Lake, E., Capt. Eng., to take rank, v. Proby, deceased.—M. Jan. 8.
- Milner, E. T., Lieut., to act as Adj. to the right wing of the 31st N. I. during its separation from head-quarters.—C. Dec. 10.
- M'Donald, R., Surg. of Barrack-Master's Department, Fort Williams, transferred to Commissariat Department.—C. Dec. 15.
- Miles, F. A., Lieut. of Artill., to be 1st Lieut.—C. Jan. 1.
- Miles, R. M., Lieut. 5th N. I., appointed to do duties of Interp. and Quarter-Master, v. Browne.—C. Dec. 21.
- Martin, R., Major 10th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—C. Dec. 28.
- Muston, W. P., Surg.-Apothecary, on furl. to the Cape, for health.—C. Dec. 28.
- Macleay, A., Esq., to be Sub-Collect. and joint Magistrate of Malabar.—M. Jan. 4.
- Morris, H., Esq., to be Head-Assist. to principal Collec. and Magis. of Southern Divis. of Arcot.—M. Jan. 4.
- Montgomery, H., Esq., to be Head Assist. to principal Collec. and Magis. of Southern Div. of Melore.—M. Jan. 4.
- Marjoribanks, Wm., Capt., to be Master Attendant at Madras.—M. Jan. 4.
- Mackenzie, W., Surg., rem. from 3d Batt. Artill. to 29th N. I.—M. Dec. 24, and on furl. to Europe.
- Moor, J., Lieut.-Col. 28th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—M. Jan. 4.
- M'Nabb, J. G., Ens 30th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 4.
- Mackenzie, R., Lieut. 1st Light Cav., to act as Adj. to right wing at Kaira.—B. Dec. 3.
- Murray, A. C., (the Hon.) Lieut. 2d Light Cav., to be an Aid-de-camp on personal Staff of Com.-in-Chief.—B. Dec. 4.
- Morgan, T., sen., Maj. Inf., to be Lieut.-Col., v. Neall, ret.—B. Dec. 4.
- Moore, G., Capt., to be Paym. in Poona Div. of Army.—B. Dec. 8.
- Melville, P. M., Lieut. 7th N. I., to be acting Paym. to Surat Div. of army, in absence of Capt. Ranken.—B. Dec. 8.
- Molele, Maj. G. 21st N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—B. Jan. 4.
- Moor, J., Lieut.-Col., rem. from the 28th to the 17th N. I.—M. Jan. 23.
- Mureatt, Capt., Deputy-Judge-Adv. to proceed on duty to Prince of Wales Island.—M. Jan. 28.
- Meredith, J. J., Major 4th Light Cavalry, on furl. to the Presidency.—M. Feb. 1.
- Miller, W. A., Lieut. 4th N. I., to be Adj. v. Chinnery.—M. Jan. 25.
- Macdougall, J., Ens. 17th N. I., on furl. to Europe.—M. Jan. 25.
- Mills, A. J. M. M., to be third Assistant of the Courts of Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut.—C. Jan. 3.
- Macdonald, J. M., Sen. Cornet 1st Light Cav., to be Lieut. v. Prescott, struck off.—M. Jan. 8.
- Macdonald, J. K., Lieut., L. C., to take rank v. Burt, prom.—M. Jan. 8.
- Melbourne, (the late) R. E., Major, Eng., to be Lieut.-Col. v. Cleghorn, deceased.—M. Jan. 8.
- Monteath, W., Major Eng., to be Lieut. Col., v. Melbourne.
- Miller, J., Lieut., 43d N. I., to take rank, v. Campbell, prom.—M. Jan. 8.
- Moloney, S. W. J., Lieut., 5th Light Cavalry, placed at the disposal of the Presidency at Hyderabad.—M. Jan. 15.
- Nixon, John, sen., Ens. of the N. I., to be Lieut. v. Stapylton, res.—M. Jan. 8.
- O'Hara, C., Lieut. 4th Light Cav., to act as Second in Command in absence of Capt. Speck.—C. Dec. 13.
- Owen, J. O., Lieut. 35th N. I., permitted to resign.—C. Jan. 4.
- Ogilvy, D., Lieut. 15th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Dec. 28.
- O'Neale, J., Assist. Surg., posted to the 20th N. I.—M. Jan. 23.
- Oakes, T. A., Esq., to be 2d Judge of the Provincial Court of Appeal and Circuit for the Centre Division.—M. Jan. 25.
- Jakes, C. E., Esq., to be Register to the Zillah Court of Nelore.—M. Jan. 29.

- Ogilvy, W. C., Esq., to be Head Assist. to the Collector of Masulipatam.—M. Jan. 18.
- Ommaney, W. S., Lieut., 2d Light Cavalry, to do duty with 3d Light Cavalry.—M. Jan. 3.
- Park, A., Lieut., to act as Interp. and Qu.-Mas., to the 29th N. I.—C. Dec. 18.
- Palmer, F., Capt., 9th Light Cav., transferred to Pension Estab.—C. Dec. 28.
- Price, W. P., Lieut.-Col., 11th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—C. Dec. 28.
- Patch, T. L., Ens., app. to do duty with 16th N. I.—M. Dec. 17.
- Pereira, M. N., Lieut.-Col. Comm., rem. from 37th N. I. to 34th, or C. L. I.—M. Dec. 24.
- Powell, T., Assist.-Surg., posted to the 10th N. I.—M. Dec. 24.
- Pollock, T., Lieut.-Col., 22d N. I., perin. to resign command of Nagpore, Subsid. Force.—M. Jan. 4.
- Pearce, W. G., Lieut.-Col. Artill., to be acting commandant of Artill., with a seat at the Military Board, v. Sinclair.—M. Jan. 8.
- Penley, G., Capt. 16th N. I., to command the troops in Cutch, in absence of Lieut.-Col. Kinnersley.—B. Jan. 12.
- Phillipson, John Surg. on furl., to Eur. for health.—D. Dec. 22.
- Pollock, T., Lieut.-Col. 22d N. I., on furl. to Eur.—M. Jan. 4.
- Pew, J. W., Capt., 40th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 4.
- Pace, H., Lieut., 30th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 4.
- Prescott, C. Lieut., 5th N. I., to act as Paymaster to Baroda, Subsid. Force in the absence of Capt. Meldrum.—B. Dec. 3.
- Parr, T. C., Lieut., 7th N. I., to be Capt. v. Wilson from.—B. Dec. 4.
- Purves, W., Lieut., to act as Adj. to 9th N. I., in absence of Lieut. Shaw on duty.—B. Dec. 17.
- Pringle, D., Mr., to be Second Register of Bhanguapore.—C. Feb. 14.
- Parlby, B. B., Lieut., rem. from the 19th to the 13th N. I.—M. Jan. 23.
- Pears, T. T., Lieut., Eng., to be Superintend. Eng. with the Field Force in the Doonab.—M. Jan. 18.
- Parlby, B. B., Lieut. Col. 19th N. I., to command Bangalore, v. Armstrong.—M. Jan. 22.
- Pakenham, J. M., to be Commissioner in Cuttack, and Supernumerary Member of the Board of Revenue in the Lower Provinces.—C. Jan. 3.
- Porter, R. T., Esq., to be Head Assist. to the Principal Coll. of Coimbatore.—M. Jan. 22.
- Pennell, H., Esq., to be Provincial Judge of Colombo, v. J. G. Forbes.—Ceylon, Jan. 8.
- Russell, H. P., Mr., to be Magistrate and Collector of the Jungle Mehauls.—C. Feb. 14.
- Read, M., Mr., to be Assist. to the Magistrate and to the Collector of the Jungle Mehauls.—C. Jan. 3.
- Richards, J. W., Senior Ensign, 21st N. I., to be Lieut. in succession to Downes, promoted.—M. Jan. 8.
- Robley, J. H., Lieut., 43d N. I., to take rank.—M. Jan. 8.
- Rose, W., Senior Lieut., 43d N. I., to be Capt. v. M'Leod, dec.—M. Jan. 8.
- Ryves, T. J., Ens., 43d N. I., to be Lieut. v. Rose, promoted.—M. Jan. 8.
- Read, M. Mr., to be assistant to Secretary to Board of Revenue in Central Provinces.—C. Dec. 27.
- Rippon, T. L., Lieut., 8th N. I., to be Qu.-Mas. Interp. and Pay Mas. v. Lucas prom.—M. Dec. 28.
- Ramsay, J. W., Lieut., 44th N. I., to be adj. v. Cunningham resigned.—M. Jan. 8.
- Rudd, L., Lieut., 37th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 4.
- Rooke, J. N., Cadet, admitted to Artill. and prom. to 2d Lieut.—B. Dec. 8.
- Rankein, J., Capt., 23d N. I., to be Pay-Mas. in Surat Divis. of Army.—B. Dec. 8.
- Richards, C., Lieut., 8th N. I., to be Adj. v. Neville, prom.—B. Dec. 10.
- Rigby, G. A., Maj., 10th N. I., placed at disposal of the Comm.-in-Chief.—B. Jan. 10.

- Ramsay, H. N., Lieut. 24th regt., to act as Quarter-master to 11th regt.
—B. Jan. 12.
- Stewart, G. M., Lieut.-Col., prom. from the 17th to the 28th N. I.—M. Jan. 23.
- Sargent, Capt., 41st N. I., appointed to the Rifle Corps.—M. Jan. 23.
- Stokes, H., Esq., to be Assist. to the Collector and Magistrate at Tinnevely.
—M. Jan. 29.
- Strange, W. R., Lieut. 2d Light Cav., to take rank, v. Pocock, dec.—M. Jan. 18.
- Simpson, W. H., Lieut. 36th N. I., to be Aid-de-Camp to the Commander-in-Chief, v. Bradford.—M. June 22.
- Strettell, J. W., Sen. Cornet 1st Light Cav. to Lieut., v. Buchanan, prom.
—M. Jan. 8.
- Sim, D., Capt., Eng., to be Major, v. Monteath, prom.—M. Jan. 8.
- Sharpe, T., Lieut., to take rank, v. Crowe, dec.—M. Jan. 8.
- Scott, H. R., Esq., to be sitting Magistrate and Fiscal of Jaffna, v. Huskisson,
—Ceylon, Jan. 1.
- Stewart, W., Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quar.-mast. to 22d N. I., in absence
of Lieut. Sampson.—C. Dec. 10.
- Shortreed, W., Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quar.-mast. to 2d Europ. Regt., in
absence of Lieut. Ripley, on furlough.—C. Dec. 11.
- Smith, W. M., 1st Lieut. of Engineers, posted to the Sappers and Miners at
Allyghur.—C. Dec. 15.
- Stuart, J., Capt., Assist.-Secretary, to be Dep.-Secretary to Government in Military
Department, with official rank of Major.—C. Dec. 28.
- Sanderson, T., Lieut. and Brev. Capt. 9th Light Cav., to be Capt. of a Troop, v.
Palmer, transferred to Pension Estab.—C. Jan. 4.
- Smith, H. B., Lieut., Interp. and Quar.-Mast. 37th N. I., rem. from his situation
unqualified.—C. Dec. 21.
- Sherman, J. W., Assist.-Surg., to be Dep. Medical Store-keeper at Zaulnah,
—M. Dec. 28.
- Smith, D. C., Lieut.-Col., rem. from 38th to 37th N. I.—M. Dec. 24.
- Sherard, C., Ens., posted to 8th N. I.—M. Dec. 24.
- Stapylton, B., Lieut. 7th N. I., permitted to resign.—M. Jan. 24.
- Sinclair, Sir John, Bart., Col. Artill., app. to Staff of Fort St. George, v. Leith,
and to command Northern Division of the Army.—M. Jan. 8.
- Smith, H. S. O., Ens. 42d N. I., on furlough to sea for health.—M. Jan. 8.
- Starkley, H., Lieut., to act as Quar.-mast. to 7th N. I.—B. Dec. 3.
- Stewart, T. R., Ens., transferred from 10th to 8th N. I.—B. Dec. 4.
- Stock, T., Ens. 23d N. I., to be Lieut., v. E. P. Ramsay, deceased.—B. Dec. 5.
- St. Clair, W. A., Cadet, adm. to Artil. and prom. to 2d Lieut.—B. Dec. 8.
- Spence, S. C., Lieut. 13th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—B. Jan. 10.
- Tod, J. O., Esq., to be 2d Judge of Provincial Court of Appeal and Circuit for the
Northern Division.—M. Feb. 1.
- Thomson, C. A., Esq., to be Secretary to Government in the Public, &c. Department.—M. Feb. 1.
- Taylor, R., Senior Cornet, 2d Light Cavalry, to be Lieut., v. Flyter, deceased.
—M. Jan. 18.
- Trapand J. L. P., Sen., Ens., 33d N. I., to be Lieutenant, v. Drewe, invalided.—
—M. Jan. 8.
- Taylor, C., Capt., Artill., to be Commiss. of Stores with the Nagpore Subsid.
Force, v. Polwhele, on furl.—M. Jan. 15.
- Turnour, G., Esq., to be Revenue Commiss. in the Kandian Prov., v. Pennell.
—Ceylon, Jan. 19.
- Turner, T. J., Mr., to be Collector of Seharunpore.—C. Dec. 27.
- Truscott, C. W. Mr., to be Assist. to commercial resident, and opium agent at
Benares; also Assist. to Deputy-Collector of Customs at Ghazepore.
—C. Dec. 27.
- Turner, Geo., Ens. 38th N. I., to be Lieut. v. Aldous, prom.—C. Dec. 28.
- Tait, C., Ens. of Inf., on furl. to Europe for health.—C. Dec. 28.
- Thompson, C. A. Esq., to be Collec. and Joint Magis. at Cuddapah.—M. Jan. 4.
- Taylor, J., Lieut.-Col. 1st Eur. reg., to command 1st Infantry brigade of Doob
force.—B. Dec. 17.

- Underwood, J. J., Capt., Eng., to take rank, v. Melbourne.—M. Jan. 8.
Underwood, G. A., Senior and 1st Lieutenant, Eng., to be Capt. Sim, v. prom.—M. Jan. 8.
Underwood, J., Surg., to be Cantonment-Surg. at St. Thomas's Mount, v. Mackenzie, on furl.—M. Dec. 28.
Woodward, R. Mr., to be Sub-Collector and Joint Magistrate of Belah.—C. Dec. 27.
Wake, W. H., Lieut. and Brev. Captain, to act as Interp. and Quart.-Mast. in absence of Lieut. Wemyss on duty.—C. Dec. 11.
Westmacott, G. E., Lieut. 37th N. I., to be Interp. and Quart.-Mast. v. Smith. C. Dec. 21.
Warren, C. H., Sen. Ensign 25th N. I., to be Lieut. v. Smith, resigned.—M. Dec. 28.
Wilson, P. W., Lieut.-Col., rem. from 37th to 38th N. I.—M. Dec. 24.
Wallace, John, Capt. 46th N. I., on furl. to Europe.—M. Jan. 8.
Wilson, D., Capt. 7th N. I., to be Maj. v. Morgan, prom.—B. Dec. 4.
Wenn, C. W., Lieut. to act as Adj. to 19th N. I. in absence of Lieut. Spence, on sick certificate.—B. Dec. 17.
Wilkinson, W., Mr., to be Collector of Cuttack.—C. Feb. 14.
Webb, N., Esq., to be Post-Master-General.—M. Feb. 1.
Walker, John, Esq., to be Jun.-Deputy-Register to the Court of Foujdarry Udahut.—M. Feb. 1.
Woulf, J., Lieut.-Col., rem. from the 26th to the 52d N. I.—M. Jan. 23.
Walker, R. Mr., to be Register of the Zillah Court of Ghazepore.—C. Jan. 3.
Wallace, J., Lieut., 23d Light Inf., to be Post-Master to the Field Force in the Doab, v. Wallace, on furl.—M. Jan. 15.
Wallace, J., 45th N. I., on furl. to Belgium.—M. Jan. 19.
Wilmot, M., Esq., to be Agent of Government, in the Kandian Prov. of Saffragam, v. Turnour—Ceylon, Jan. 8.
Young, P. B., Cadet, admitted to Inf. and prom. to Ens.—M. Jan. 4.

General Orders by his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief.

Head-quarters, Choultry Plain, 14th Jan. 1828.

THE following Extracts, from the Confirmed Proceedings of a European General Court-Martial, held at Bellary on Thursday the 3d day of January 1828, by virtue of a warrant of authority from his Excellency Lieutenant-General Sir G. T. Walker, G.C.B., and K.C.T.S., Commander-in-Chief, are published to the army.

Lieutenant William Michael Lolly, of the 11th Regiment of Native Infantry, placed in confinement on the following charge:

For being present, aiding and abetting at the wilful murder of Lieutenant James Frazer, of the 11th Regiment Native Infantry, on the 20th of October, 1827.

By Order of his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief.

(Signed)

T. H. S. CONWAY,

Adjutant-Gen. of the Army.

Adjutant-General's Office,
Fort St. George, 12th Dec. 1827.

Finding,—That the prisoner, Lieutenant William Michael Lolly, of the 11th Regiment Native Infantry, is Not Guilty of the charge preferred against him, and doth therefore acquit him of the same.

(Signed)

JAMES TAYLOR,
Lieut.-Col. and President.
G. T. WALKER,
Commander-in-Chief.

Confirmed

(Signed)

Lieutenant Lolly is released from arrest, and will return to his duty forthwith.

BIRTHS.

- Ainsley, the lady of Wm., Esq., of a son, at Calcutta, Jan. 17.
 Crawford, the lady of the Rev. A., of a son, at Bankott, Jan. 13.
 Harris, the lady of Major, of a daughter at Bangalore, Jan. 8.
 Lane, the lady of T. M., Esq. of a daughter, Madras, Jan. 7.
 Lacroix, the lady of the Rev. —, of a son, at Chinsurah, Feb. 16.
 Maclean, the lady of C. A., Esq., of a son, at Banjettie, Moorahedabad, Feb. 20.
 Maughan, the lady of Capt. P., of a daughter, at Byculla, Jan. 19.
 Maling, the lady of Major Irwin, of a daughter, at Chowringhee, Feb. 18.
 Stewart, the lady of Josiah, Political Resident, of a daughter, at Gervallore, Dec. 3.
 Swinton, the lady of Lieut.-Col., of a daughter, at Barrackpore, Jan. 16.
 Thomson, the lady of E., Esq., of a daughter, at Calcutta, Feb. 18.
 Whish, the lady of Lieut.-Col., of a son, at Bombay, Jan. 21.
 Wynch, the lady of P., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, Bengal, Feb. 21.
 Wray, the lady of Capt., of a daughter, late of the Bengal Milit. Estab., at Cleasby, Yorkshire, June 21.
 Wright, the lady of Lieut. and Adj. G., of a daughter, at Vellore, Dec. 11.

MARRIAGES.

- Bogaardt, F. D., Esq., Netherland Majesty's Civ. Serv., to Diana Lavinia, youngest daughter of the late Col. T. T. Basset, Hon. Company's Service, at Chandernagore, Dec. 10.
 Booker, Lieut., Artill., to Helena, youngest daughter of the late Major Arata, of his Majesty's service, at Madras, Jan. 28.
 Goodenough, Edmund, Ens., 35th M. N. I., to Sophia Harriette, youngest daughter of Lieut.-Col. Andrie, at Madras, Jan. 14.
 Helsdinger, W. V., Esq., to Miss E. C., Michel, second daughter of Capt. Michel, at Chinsurah, Feb. 5.
 Josephus, Jacobus, Esq., to Miss J. Mathews, only daughter of the late Capt. L. Mathews, at Bengal, Feb. 12.
 Lightfoot, S., St. Ledger, Assist.-Surg., 17th Foot, to Louisa Harriette, second daughter of C. Corfield, Esq., Knowle Lodge, Taunton, at Berhampore, Feb. 15.
 Oldfield, H. S., Esq., to Letitia, eldest daughter of the late Col. R. Scott, Beng. Serv., at Calcutta, Dec. 28.
 Stewart, Allen, Esq., Capt., 89th Foot, to Rebecca Amelia, daughter of H. N. Watson, Esq., of Charlton House, near Dover, Kent, at Madras, Jan. 9.
 Swinhoe, R., Esq., to Caroline, third daughter of the late Major Anderson, 19th Foot, at Calcutta, Feb. 18.
 Wallace, James, Lieut. 23d L. Inf., Mad. Army, 3d son of J. Wallace, Esq., Mad. Civ. Serv., to Ann Frances, second daughter of the late Daniel O'Flaherty, Esq., Surg. 45th Foot, at Belgaum, Jan. 17.

DEATHS.

- Barbault, Cornelia, youngest daughter of Capt., 54th Foot, at Cannanore, Dec. 20.
 Clay, Charles Henry, only son of C. H. Clay, Esq., Madras, Jan. 4.
 Gordon, the Rev. John, Missionary, aged 49, Madras, Jan. 16.
 Gardner, Allan, Esq., eldest son of Col. Gardner, of Gardner's Horse, at Khap-gunge, Jan. 30.
 Harris, Henry, Esq., Assist. Civil Surgeon at Dacca, Jan. 10.
 Mackay, Jane, M. L., relict of the late E. Mackay, Esq., Mad. Serv., at Pondicherry, Jan. 26.
 Manuk, Mrs. C. M., relict of the late M. Mannk, Esq., at Bengal, Feb. 10.
 Robertson, Colin Chas. Forbes, third son of C. R., Esq., of York-place, London, aged 22 years, at Bombay, Dec. 8.
 Robertson, C. J. J., Esq., at Calcutta, Jan. 5.
 Skipton, T. K., Lieut., 10th Light Cav., at Meerut, Dec. 21.
 Wiggins, C., Lieut., (late of the Horse Artill.) aged 25, at Chowringhee, Jan. 1.

SHIPPING INTELLIGENCE.

ARRIVALS FROM EASTERN PORTS.

Date. 1828.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Place of Depart.	Date. 1827-8.
May 26	Downs ..	Ann & Elizabeth	Kendrew ..	South Seas	—
May 27	Gravesand..	Joseph ..	Christopherson	Bengal ..	Dec. 25
May 27	Clyde ..	Simpson ..	Black ..	Mauritius	Feb. 6
May 28	Portsmouth	Persian ..	Plunkett ..	V. D. Land	Jan. 4
May 28	Portsmouth	Governor Ready	Young ..	Mauritius	Jan. 30
May 29	Downs ..	Active ..	Ellis ..	Otaheite ..	Mar. 17
May 29	Gravesend..	Susanna ..	Clappison	Mauritius	Jan. 29
May 30	Margate ..	Triton ..	Crear ..	Mauritius	Feb. 3
May 30	Downs ..	Christiana ..	Hall ..	Mauritius	Feb. 9
May 31	Downs ..	Lady Hamilton	Vaughan ..	South Seas	Dec. 12
May 31	Downs ..	Rifleman ..	Hawkins ..	Mauritius	—
May 31	Downs ..	Eliza ..	Dixon ..	Mauritius	Feb. 9
June 2	Greenock ..	Tamerlane ..	Miller ..	Bombay ..	Jan. 20
June 3	Isle of Wight	Windsor ..	Proctor ..	China ..	Jan. 28
June 3	Greenock ..	Comet ..	Fraser ..	Bombay ..	Jan. 18
June 3	Downs ..	Freelands ..	Jones ..	Mauritius	Feb. 14
June 3	Margate ..	Childe Harold..	West ..	Bengal ..	Dec. 28
June 3	Weymouth	Scauby Castle	Newall ..	China ..	Jan. 17
June 3	Downs ..	Lady Flora ..	Fraye ..	Bengal ..	Jan. 16
June 4	Portsmouth	Vansittart ..	Dalrymple..	China ..	Jan. 28
June 4	Portsmouth	Wellington ..	Evans ..	Madras ..	Feb. 19
June 4	Holyhead ..	Gypsie ..	Quirke ..	Bombay ..	Jan. 22
June 5	Isle of Wight	Atlas ..	Hine ..	China ..	Jan. 9
June 5	Liverpool ..	Ann ..	Fowler ..	Mauritius	Feb. 17
June 5	Dartmouth	Norden ..	Burd ..	China ..	Jan. 4
June 6	Isle of Wight	P. C. of Wales	Biden ..	Bengal ..	Feb. 1
June 7	Portsmouth	Inglis ..	Searle ..	China ..	Jan. 28
June 7	Portsmouth	Duke of Sussex	Whitehead	China ..	Feb. 13
June 7	Brighton ..	M. of Wellington	Chapman ..	Bengal ..	Feb. 6
June 7	Portsmouth	Sesostris ..	Bourchier	Bombay ..	Jan. 30
June 9	Downs ..	Eliza ..	Sutton ..	Bengal ..	Jan. 18
June 9	Downs ..	Clyde ..	Munro ..	Bengal ..	Jan. 10
June 9	Downs ..	Upton Castle ..	Weldridge	Bombay ..	Jan. 20
June 9	Portsmouth	Resource ..	Fenn ..	Bengal ..	Jan. 16
June 12	Poole ..	Diadem ..	Wilson ..	Bengal ..	Jan. 17
June 21	Portsmouth	Catherine ..	Macintosh..	Bengal ..	Feb. 8
June 21	Cowes ..	Calcutta ..	Moller ..	Calcutta ..	Feb. 24
June 23	Downs ..	Lord Melville ..	Brown ..	Bengal ..	Dec. 28
June 23	Downs ..	Harmony ..	Middleton ..	N. S. Wales	Jan. 5
June 23	Downs ..	Mellish ..	Vincent ..	Bengal ..	Dec. 22
June 23	—	Eleanor ..	Munro ..	Mauritius	Feb. 7
June 23	Start ..	Brothers ..	Brigg ..	Cape ..	April 2
June 23	Downs ..	Patience ..	Matthews ..	Cape ..	April 1
June 26	Portsmouth	Vibilia ..	Stephenson	Bombay ..	Jan. 19
June 27	Needles ..	Arcturus ..	Oliver ..	Mauritius	March 2

ARRIVALS IN EASTERN PORTS.

Date. 1828.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Port of Depart.
Jan. 19	Madras ..	Lalla Rookh ..	M'Callum ..	London
Jan. 22	Calcutta ..	Perseverance ..	Brown ..	Liverpool

Date. 1828.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Port of Depart.
Jan. 23	Calcutta	Calcutta	Strogan	Liverpool
Jan. 25	Bombay	Lady Gordon	Bell	Liverpool
Jan. 26	N. S. Wales	Wood Lark	Leary	London
Jan. 26	N. S. Wales	Nereus	M'Farland	Liverpool
Jan. 28	Calcutta	Zenebia	Douglas	London
Jan. 30	Calcutta	Anna Robertson	Irving	London
Feb. 1	Calcutta	Belle Alliance	Hunter	London
Feb. 7	Bombay	Margaret	—	Liverpool
Feb. 7	N. S. Wales	Queen Charlotte	Maughan	London
Feb. 9	Bombay	M. S. Elphinstone	Henning	London
Feb. 16	Calcutta	Prince Regent	Murphy	London
Feb. 21	Calcutta	Laurel	Tait	Greenock
Feb. 21	Calcutta	Arcturus	Wilson	London

DEPARTURES FROM EUROPE.

Date. 1828.	Port of Depart.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Destination.
May 20	Liverpool	St. George	Swainton	Bengal
May 26	Liverpool	Dorothy	Garnock	Bombay
May 27	Liverpool	Ulster	Shannon	Bombay
May 27	Liverpool	James and Thomas	Asbridge	Bombay
May 29	Downs	Achilles	Marshall	Mauritius
May 29	Downs	Emma	North	Bombay
May 29	Downs	Renown	Baker	Bengal
June 3	Shields	Scotia	Simpson	Bombay
June 6	Downs	Belzoni	Talbot	Mad. & Beng.
June 6	Downs	Charles Kerr	Brodie	Bombay
June 7	Downs	Lady Kennaway	DeLafores	China
June 8	Downs	Lord W. Bentinck	Craigie	China
June 9	Liverpool	Sir Francis Burton	—	Bombay
June 9	Liverpool	John Heyes	Worthington	Bengal
June 10	Portsmouth	Edward Lombe	Freeman	Bombay
June 11	Downs	Barbara	Dunn	Cape
June 12	Portsmouth	Triumph	Green	Bombay
June 12	Liverpool	Francis Watson	Bragg	Singapore
June 12	Downs	Harriett	Palmer	Cape
June 14	Liverpool	Gonsbrook	Strachan	Bombay
June 14	Liverpool	Eagle	Batley	Cape
June 14	Dartmouth	Esther	Robinson	Bombay
June 15	Liverpool	John Taylor	Atkinson	Bengal
June 15	Liverpool	Bengal	Atkins	Bombay
June 17	Portsmouth	Rockingham	Hornblow	Mad. & Beng.
June 17	Downs	Campe Bella	Corner	Mauritius
June 20	Liverpool	Colombia	Kirkwood	Bengal
June 20	Downs	Lord Hungerford	Heathorn	Bengal
June 20	Downs	Margaret	MacCormic.	St. Helena
June 20	Portsmouth	James Pattison	Grote	Bengal
June 20	Portsmouth	Aurora	Owen	Madras
June 20	Downs	Joseph Green	Mollinson	Mauritius
June 20	Downs	Orynthia	Rixon	Singapore
June 20	Downs	Achilles	Henderson	Mauritius
June 21	Liverpool	Crisis	Peabody	Bengal
June 22	Gravesend	Home	Younger	Mauritius
June 22	Portsmouth	Cornwall	Aldham	Bengal
June 23	Downs	Tyne	Browne	Mauritius
June 23	Downs	Abberton	Perceval	Bengal
June 24	Portsmouth	Fairlie	Fuller	Bengal

Date.	Port of Depart.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Destination.
1828.				
June 24	Downs	Hedleys	Halliborton.	Mauritius
June 24	Downs	Glenalvon	Rickaby	Cape
June 25	Gravesend	Dunvegan Castle	Fjnlav	Mauritius
June 25	Gravesend	St. Leonard	Rutherford	Mauritius
June 25	Portsmouth	Upton Castle	Thacker	Bombay
June 25	Downs	Bolton	Clarkson	Bombay
June 26	Gravesend	Carn Brea Castle	Davey	Bengal
June 26	Downs	Cambrian	Blythe	Bombay

GENERAL LIST OF PASSENGERS.

PASSENGERS HOMEWARDS.

By the *St. David*, from Bombay:—Lieut. Inglesden; Hon. Comp.'s Marine; Ens. Gray, 41st Foot; Mr. and Mrs. Guttie, and child.

By the *Persian*, from Van Dieman's Land:—Capt. Cobb, 40th regt.; Drs. Jas. Barnes, and Jas. Paton, R. N.; Mr. and Mrs. Williams; Mr. Farquharson, and two children; Mr. J. H. Lyons, of Artill.; J. Adams, and wife; James Baker, seventeen invalids, two women, and three children.

By the *Governor Ready*, from New South Wales:—Dr. Wilson, R. N.; Messrs. Cooper, Smith, Foster, Goode, and Goodwin; Mesdames Cooper, and one child, Telfavo, and two children; Master Chas. Staveland, two servants.

By the *John Dun*, from the Mauritius:—Capt. M'Donald, Artill.

By the *Windsor*, from China:—Mr. Jas. Walker, late 3d officer of the *Farquharson*.

By the *Scaletby Castle*, from China:—Capt. Ralfe, Bengal Artill.; Messrs. G. Zowell and J. Henries; Mesdames Smith, Clubley, and Reardy, (servant to Mr. Clubley.)

By the *Childs Harold*, from Bengal and Madras:—Lieut.-Col. M. Walker; Capt. F. Fuller, 59th Foot, G. H. Johnson, Bengal N. I., and J. Grave, 46th Foot, Lieuts. Hopper, Madras Eur. regt. (died at sea,) Presscott, Madras N. I., Kirby, Madras N. I., and Wall, 59th Foot; Ens. Smith, Madras N. I., J. P. Stonehouse, Madras Civ. Serv., and W. H. Parry, Esq., Madras Civ. Serv.; Messrs. George Smith, Assist.-Surge, Bengal N. I., and Bellingham, Civilian; Mesdames Capt. Fuller, Stonehouse, Sutherland, and Hennessey, (servant); Misses Fuller, Stonehouse, two Grants, Sutherland, and Cuppage; Masters Stonehouse, Kirby, Edwin Edwin, (servant,) and six servants.

By the *Lady Flora*, from Bengal:—Cols. King, 16th Lancers, Cock, 12th N. I., and Price, 11th N. I.; Majors R. Martin, 10th N. I., and H. Cock; Capt. Talbot, R. N., and Manners, 59th Foot; Lieuts. Dundas, 4th N. I., and Kelly, 15th N. I., (died at sea,) Messrs. F. Low, Civ. Serv., Phipps, and Horner; Masters C. King, Low, and W. D. Bishop; Mesdames King and Lowther; Misses Hessing, Brightman, E. M. L. Gwatkin, H. J. Gwatkin, C. S. Bishop, J. J. Nicholson, and three Kings.

By the *Fansittart*, from China:—Lieut.-Col. Barnes, Bengal N. I.; J. Deanes, Esq. and lady, (from Batavia.)

By the *Wellington*, from Madras:—Col. Rob. Scott, (C. B.); Lieut.-Col. F. King; Capt. Leggett, 3d N. I.; Law Engineers, Nottidge, 12th N. I. and Winbolt; Lieuts. G. Arbuthnot and G. Gregory, 3d rég. Cav., and Rudd., 37th N. I.; Ensigns Budd, 3d N. I., and Littlebales, 52d N. I.; Joseph Clulow and Edw. Griffiths, Esqs.; Masters Moorat, J. Watson, Henry Thomson, John Thomson, J. T. Howell; Mrs. Mary Ann M'Mahon, in charge of Misses Elena, Charlotte, and Sophia Moore, and Charlotte Howell; 4 male servants.

By the *Atlas*, from China and the Cape:—Gen. Walker, late Governor of St. Helena, and lady; Col. Kinnaird, St. Helena Artillery; Major Cameron (left at the Cape); Messrs. William and James Walker; Welch (Tutor); Masters John Lindsay and Wm. Fraser; Mesdames M'Nab and Ackland from the Cape, and

Hutchings, from Penang; Misses Hutchings, Ibbetson, M'Nab, Cameron, Hunter, and Fraser.

By the *Princess Charlotte of Wales*, from Bengal and Madras.—Lieut.-Col. Tidy (C. B.), 59th Foot; Lieut. Tidy, 59th Foot; Sir Roger Martin, Bart., Civ. Serv., John Trotter, Henry Mundy, David Erskine, and Patrick Grant, Esqrs., M'Lane, late Capt. 7th Light Cav., Masters Elliot, Henry Erskine, Thomas Atkins and Woods; The Hon. Mrs. Elliot; Mesdames Henry Gubbe, Savage, and Hadow; Misses Erskine, Compton, Ann Cowell, H. Hunter, Two Erskines, M. Atkinson, Two Clarks, Savage, Hadow, and Coupland; nine servants.

By the *Duke of Sussex*, from China:—Mr. Fox, of the late ship Asia; Mr. Haynes, and 2 children, from St. Helena.

By the *Marquis of Wellington*, from India:—Col. Balmain; Capts. Sweeney, Kerr, and Cleveland; Lieuts. Chisholm and Wallace; Master Jackson; Mesdames Hutchinson, Maxwell, and child; Kerr and child; Bailes and 6 children; Balmain and child; Cleveland and 3 children; Vaughan and 6 children; Dr. M'Kenzie, and wife, and children; Miss Bond; Col. Jackson, died at sea, March 5.; six servants.

By the *Gipsy*, from Bombay:—Capts. Wright and O'Donnoghue; Lieut. Stewart; Dr. Taylor, and Mrs. Wright.

By the *Eliza*, from Bengal:—Capts. G. S. Blundell, Bengal N. I., and E. Malone, Bengal Cav.; Lieut. Begbie; Messrs. Hastie, Shove, and A. Udney, Civ. Serv. (died at sea, 25th April.); Masters (two) Grindall, Poyntz, E. Ellis, W. G. Lumsdaine, and W. L. Hastie; Mesdames Grindall, Stewart, and Begbie; Misses (three) Grindall, M. Stewart, F. Begbie, Ellis, L. Lumsdaine, E. Hastie, and ten servants.

By the *Clyde*, from Madras and Bengal:—Capts. Steward and T. Hill; Lieuts. Steward, Haldane, and Grave; Mr. Phillipson; Mesdames Reddie, (and four children,) Steward, (and two children,) M'Lean, (and two children,) and Mrs. Clarke.

By the *Sesastrie*, from Bombay:—Capts. Wilson, (and two children,) Athell, (and one child,) Slight, Trincombe, Hart, Johnson, Urquhart, and Grant; Lieuts. Docker, Lewis, King, and Jacob; Drs. Bourchier and Moyle; Mr. Pitt; two Masters Bartley.

By the *Resource*, from Bengal:—Lieut.-Col. Day; Lieuts. Rellier and Lloyd; Mr. Higgins; Mesdames Birmingham, (and three children,) and Bingley, (and five children).

By the *Upton Castle*, from Bombay:—Col. Egan and lady; Capts. Ellis, Lansen, Fasberry, and Thomson; Lieuts. Connor and Foley; Drs. Hathway, Frazer, and Liddell; Cornet Hay; Rev. Mr. Slead; Mr. Graham; seventy-three invalids.

By the *Catherine*, from Bengal:—Majors J. Drysdale and Pew; Capts. Falconer and Hare; Lieuts. Symonds, Powle, and Whittenale; A. D. Ferrier, J. Ross, and J. Brown, Esqrs.; Masters Lamb, Barlowe, Mackenzie, E. Edwards, Matheson, La Marchand, Gordon, Fowle, M'Sweeny, and Bailey; Mesdames Lamb, Bailey, Falconer, and Mackenzie; Misses Dickson, three Lambs, Barlowe, Matheson, Grant, and Davidson.

By the *Lord Melville*, from Bengal:—Lieut.-Col. Swain and lady; Capt. Rose, 45th Foot; Lieut. R. W. Dang, 37th N. I., and Miss E. Lethbridge.

By the *Diadem*, from Bengal:—Mrs. Gordon and son.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

The 'War Song for Greece,' inserted in the Number for May, 1828, was from the pen of Mr. William Tucker, Surgeon, Adelphi, whose name and address were inadvertently omitted.

THE ORIENTAL HERALD.

No. 56.—AUGUST, 1828.—Vol. 18.

ON THE COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH CHINA.

IN several previous articles inserted in this Journal, we have discussed, at considerable length, our political relations with China, and endeavoured to dispel the illusion that has so long existed in this country with regard to the civil condition of the Celestial Empire, and the military and naval power of that imperfectly known quarter of the globe. In these articles, our object was to lift up the veil that has so long obscured the vision of our countrymen; and to show, that however adequate the internal policy of the Chinese may be, to secure the stability of their own singular laws and habits, that policy is altogether unfit to sustain their country against any external shock; and that, in remodelling our political and commercial relations with them, (which must very soon be done,) it will require but a moderate application of our power, to bring the arrogant, but pusillanimous, natives of that country, to a proper sense of the advantages which would accrue to themselves and to us, by a more unrestricted trade than it has hitherto been our lot to enjoy, under the domination of that grasping body, the East India Company. Another object we had in view, while examining the character and power of the Chinese, was to effect that which we have, for a long time past, aimed at; namely, a change in the present system of our commerce with the East, which, we are satisfied, would be productive of incalculable benefits, not alone to England, but to the whole world. Independently of the commerce and manufactures of our country being encouraged and increased, by a freer and more unrestrained intercourse with the Eastern nations of the world than we enjoy at present, or than we ever have any chance of enjoying while such a body as the East India Company may exist, we are satisfied that the way would be paved for a wider diffusion of that knowledge and civilisation which

must, sooner or later, pervade all countries. For bestowing this most important of all benefits on a population exceeding that of any other country in the world, nothing can be so useful as the extension of those principles of freedom, both in a commercial and political sense, which are the peculiar boast of our own country. This must be the first step towards the higher object. The half-civilised Asiatic must taste of some of the sweets of that temporal enjoyment which is possessed by his more civilised fellow-creatures, before his judgment can be convinced that any creed is better than his own; and we again repeat, that the happier order of things at which all good men aim, is to be begun and attained among the nations of the East, and in China particularly, by the display of our power, by the unrestricted change of our productions, and by the gradual acquirement of those civil and political rights with which we are blessed. Under this impression, we proceed to consider the nature of the commercial relations of Great Britain with China.

In discussing this subject, we must begin with repeating what cannot be too often expressed,—namely, that the monopoly of the East India Company operates like a dead weight on the commercial energies of the mother country, compels the community to pay more than a double price for an indispensable necessary of life, and greatly contributes to the oppression and subordination of a vast multitude of people, to an ignorant and despotic domination, to the entire exclusion of every principle of justice and freedom, civil as well as religious, political as well as commercial. To a person ignorant of our Indian affairs, it may be very natural to ask, how it happens that such a state of things exists at all? and how, if ever it were discovered to exist, it could, for a day or a year, be permitted to continue? We can only answer that it is so; and, moreover, that though the subject has been argued and canvassed in Parliament and out of Parliament, yet our trade with China and the East continues still the same, and we pay more than double what we ought for the most common of all our articles of consumption; in short, nothing even moderately beneficial has been obtained for the last half century in our commerce with that quarter of the world. And the only reason that has ever been assigned, or that indeed can be assigned, for this is, that every approach to an undisguised and enlightened discussion of our Indian and Chinese commercial relations has been keenly watched, unceasingly counteracted, and hitherto successfully opposed, by the whole weight and influence of the East India Company. It can be hardly necessary to state, that we speak of the East India Company as a corporate body, and of their conduct collectively, without the slightest reference to the individual motives or conduct of any one of its members, among whom we know that there are many able and intelligent men. We are speaking of them as a body, whose collective measures are injurious to the best interests of Great Britain, and far from beneficial to the distant country with which we are linked by them.

We are aware that undertakings have been, and perhaps may continue to be, too gigantic for individual wealth or enterprise; and that therefore it has been found necessary, and highly beneficial, to unite the energies and capabilities of several hands and heads. Yet even in this particular, we are witnesses to the most extraordinary revolutions. Individual wealth, and individual enterprise, seem equal, at this day, to grasp what would have been considered, fifty years ago, as only practicable under the collective wealth and enterprise of half a nation: And with the progress of this physical and moral power, there is fortunately a very fair proportion of liberality and intelligence mixed up;—in all, except in the corporate body, the monopoly, of which we are speaking, which remains a solitary and living evidence of an establishment, perhaps essentially necessary for forming our *early* intercourse with the East; but which, in the progress of time, and the change of circumstances, has become a bulwark positively opposed to the advancement of that very commerce which it was the means of creating.

The glaring evil of the East India monopoly does not consist so much in the formation of the body itself, as in the narrow and selfish views which the monopolists have imbibed from the long enjoyment of their exclusive advantages. Having gained almost all they wanted at the very commencement of their undertaking, they never afterwards entertained the most distant idea of sharing any part of their superabundance with the community on which they fattened. They strove with might to hold fast what they obtained; they continued to grasp at every thing that came in their way; and we believe them, at this moment, to be busy at their old work, of seeking how to preserve their original ground, without a thought of conceding a single point to the general wishes and interests of the nation. Originally a trading Company, this body suddenly found itself enabled to form territorial possessions, and to exercise, what may be termed a sovereign power, in the East,—things which were neither in the contemplation of Government, or of the Company, when their commercial rights were first conferred. Thus general trade and commerce became subordinate to local territory and local revenue; and the ostensible purposes for which the Company had been formed, were lost sight of amidst the power and consequence which such territorial acquisitions were naturally calculated to confer. It is scarcely matter of surprise, therefore, that, in 1793, the Company, possessing as they did some practical knowledge of the value of their Eastern acquisitions, should, by false colouring, and by predicting the most fatal consequences as the inevitable result of any change of system, have succeeded in blinding Government and the country, and intimidating them from the hazard of any alteration. But even at this early stage of their history, we find that a feeling prevailed against the extent of their exclusive privileges; and accordingly the Company very skilfully evaded the call for a free trade, by engaging to furnish a portion of tonnage for the

commerce of private merchants to and from *India*; but no sooner was this regulation established, than it was discovered to be totally nugatory, and inapplicable, to any useful extent, to the purposes for which it was intended! Whether this was an accident, or a skilful *ruse*, it is unnecessary, at this time of day, to inquire. It is sufficient to state the simple fact, that it secured the undivided monopoly for twenty years more, in spite of a very obvious-unacknowledged necessity for a change.

When the charter of the Company was about to expire, in 1812, the public opinion was manifested more strongly, and the importance and good policy of a free trade were advocated with greater power. Still the previous reasoning of the Company was resorted to. In place of a bold and candid tone, and a generous and manly concession to the opinions and demands of the nation, we find them defending, with tenacious pertinacity, the most insignificant of those rights which the charter originally gave. The absolute ruin of our Eastern possessions was confidently predicted, as well as the failure of those advantages which were anticipated on the opening of a free trade. 'The waters were out,' however, against them; and when they found that the firmness and determination of Government were not to be overruled, they then grasped at the concentration of East India commerce within their own precincts,—called in every local aid to secure their object,—and boldly maintained a most extraordinary doctrine,—that the concentration of the trade in the port of London alone, was scarcely less essential to the interests of the nation at large, than it was to the very existence of the trade itself. On this, the out-ports very naturally took alarm, and opposed so singular a position with such strength and force of reasoning, as at once set the question at rest to the satisfaction of Ministers; and, had the advocates of the out-ports possessed the same practical knowledge of the *China* trade as they did of the *India* trade, there is little doubt but they would have emancipated the *whole* commerce of the East from its last and remaining disgraceful shackle. Unfortunately, it was overlooked; and the monopoly of the trade to *China* still exists,—almost the last and only spot that dims the general splendour of our commercial horizon.

The same train of reasoning that was formerly used against any modification of the charter, or to the partial admission to the *India* trade, will, of course, be resorted to by the advocates of the Company, in opposing the establishment of a free trade to *China*. They will tell us of the peculiar policy of the Chinese,—of the skilful conduct of their servants,—of their own influence as a body,—of the danger of an interference by strangers with the singular people of that country,—and these, and many other arguments peculiar to themselves, they will wind up by informing us of all the ruin and misery which are introduced into the world by 'rash and violent innovations, founded on theory,' whereas they alone are qualified

by '*dear-bought experience*,' to speak sensibly on the subject. But this has too long been seen through to be again received.

Of the power and the policy of the Chinese, we have given an ample account in our preceding Numbers; and, with regard to the miseries which the Company invariably have predicted, as the inevitable consequences of any innovation on their system, or of any modification of their privileges, we should think that a sufficient answer is to be found in the total failure of all their prognostications, as to the fate of a free trade to India when that question was mooted. Then, as they will do now, they descended to a strain of argument which was unworthy of any intelligent man, arguments that the test of experience has rendered ridiculous in the eyes of the nation; they ventured, on the most unqualified assertions, to establish the certain fatality of any change,—the most probable of which have never been realised. On the contrary, in as far as they have ever predicted any mischief, an effect directly the reverse has invariably taken place, far surpassing the most sanguine expectations. The worst of all inferences must be drawn from the arguments and statements which the East India Company have ever thought it proper to shield themselves under. We are bound to believe, seeing that the results and advantages of a partial opening of the trade to India have turned out the very opposite of what they predicted,—that their judgment was warped by the considerations of their own peculiar interests; and that, while they pretended to speak their serious opinions on the dangers of any change in their system, they were advancing that which they did not themselves believe, and which the experience of twelve years has flatly contradicted. But whatever may have been the causes of their opposition to a free trade,—whether they had their origin in an aberration of judgment, or in the feeling that the preservation of their own patronage directed them to defend the monopoly by any, and by every means, and in defiance of the national voice, we are prepared to hear the whole story over again as relates to the trade with China; and we know that nothing ever has, or ever will be, obtained from them, but through the firmness of Government, aided and supported by the co-operation of the enlightened part of the commercial world.

We are not ignorant that, at one time, such places as Chusan, Nimpo, Tywan, Amay, &c., were open to our commerce; and a reference to the locality of these places will show them to be situate among the most fertile and populous provinces of China. 'They are now to us as places having no existence on the face of the earth; they are lost to British enterprise, through the very singular proceedings of the East India Company; and the only reasons that we can find for abandoning these ports are, that certain nameless difficulties 'rendered it a matter of necessity.' The truth, however, is, that the Company, knowing there was no power of interference with her exclusive privileges at that time in existence, and that they

could do whatever pleased them best, confined their commerce to one port, namely, Canton, merely because it had the effect of reducing their expenses. They found that in Canton they could get as much tea as it suited their own convenience to take, and they became indifferent to the produce of the other ports, and abandoned them. The large profits arising on the tea trade, rendered it a matter of policy with them to prevent its supply from spreading too widely; and they considered that the supply of British manufactures in the East was a matter of little consequence to them, because the profits upon such manufactures were comparatively small. Indeed, we believe that, had there not been positive stipulations requiring the exportation of a portion of British goods annually, the small quantity that may be sent out to China at present must have ceased entirely long before this time. Their territorial possessions in India furnished them with a sufficient revenue for their investments in China; and the introduction of British goods became, consequently, rather inimical to their interests there. They, in fact, required no more British goods in China, than, when sold, and joined to their surplus revenue from India, were just sufficient to pay for such a quantity of tea as it pleased them to take away. And as they found what they wanted at Canton, it became a matter of saving to them to confine their operations to that port; and hence the abandonment of all the rest, to the exclusion of any other British merchant, and the entire rule to themselves of the trade in tea. Had the other ports been left open to British enterprise, it is no bold thing to affirm that our trade with China would, at this time, have been as many millions annually as it is now thousands.

Being satisfied ourselves, and having, we trust, satisfied our readers, that little or nothing is to be expected from the East India Company in the way of concession to the mercantile interests of this country, or of any alteration or improvement in our commerce with the East, we may be permitted to go into an examination of the value of the importations from China to Great Britain, and the value of our exportations to China; and, by contrasting these with the American trade, we think we shall be able to show, that, in all we have said on the monopolising and selfish policy of the Company, there has neither been exaggeration nor distortion of fact. The principal article of our commerce with China, namely, tea, is perhaps more singular in its history than any other article of commerce in the known world. A simple and unsophisticated shrub, in little more than half a century, has become an article of such general consumption, that it seems to form one of the prime articles of existence among the great bulk of mankind. It is the peculiar growth of a country, of which it forms almost the only link of connection with the rest of the world. It forms the source of the largest commercial revenue to the British Government of any other commodity whatever, and of the largest commercial profits to the individuals concerned in its importation. Withal, it is the

simplest, the most harmless thing, that ever was offered to the gratification of man,—having, it is believed and argued by many, a moral influence wherever it is diffused. It is the rallying point of our earliest associations; it has ever given an additional charm to our firesides; and tends, perhaps, more than any one thing, to confirm the pre-existing domestic habits of the British public. Its exhilarating qualities are eagerly sought after as a restorative and solace from the effects of fatigue or dissipation; the healthy and the sick, the young and the old, all equally resort to the use of it, as yielding all the salutary influence of strong liquors, without their baneful and pernicious effects. Yet this shrub, so simple and so useful, is delivered to the community of this country, so surcharged with duties and profits beyond its original cost, that, did it contain all the mischievous qualities that are opposed to its real virtues, it could not be more strictly guarded from general use.

Another article, but one of secondary consideration in our importations from China, is raw silk. There is an extensive and increasing demand for it in Great Britain; and, like tea, it appears capable of any extent of cultivation in China, that the demand for it may require. Like tea, again, the heavy duties imposed upon its importation operate as a prohibition on its general use; but, should a time arrive when our Government ‘may consider it expedient’ to remove these duties, we may safely anticipate the most important benefits from its introduction. The superiority, or rather the perfection of our machinery, when put to use on an abundant and cheap supply of silk, would, in all probability, give us the superiority in all the branches of this manufacture, both as regards quality and cheapness.

Nankeen may be noticed as a third and last article of importation from China; but the consumption of it has so much diminished in Europe, that it merits only a very slight degree of consideration. Our observations, indeed, on the importations from China, may be strictly limited to the article of tea; and, for the whole of our imports, including factory expenses and commission, the original cost in that country amounts to the sum of two millions Sterling. This is wonderfully increased before the British public can have any access to the article of consumption; thus:—

1. The value of the Company's importations from China into Great Britain, as established by their own statements, is	£2,000,000
2. On this they charge 100 per cent, for their own especial benefit.	2,000,000
3. And the Government duty, as by law established, is equal to the original cost, and the profits charged by the company, both forming the <i>sale price</i> ,	4,000,000
	<hr/>
	£8,000,000

The sum of six millions sterling is thus paid by the people of Great Britain for Government duties and the support of the tea monopoly, centered in the East India Company, being three times the original cost of the article, or 300 per cent. But there is more than this; there is an addition of 30 per cent. to the retail-dealer.

It is high time that tea-drinkers should know, that for every mouthful of their favourite beverage they swallow to the amount of one penny, they put three pence in the pockets of Government and of the East India Company, besides a halfpenny more to their next-door neighbour, the retail-grocer. The Americans manage the matter in a very different sort of way, and in the precise manner in which the merchants of this country would do, were the monopoly of the East India Company broken up, and a free and unrestricted trade permitted to China. The following is a well-authenticated estimate of the rate at which teas are landed in Europe by an American vessel:—

A ship of 400 tons' measurement carries, of tea, 75 to 100 per cent. on the regular tonnage; is sailed with eighteen or twenty men, including captain and officers; and is chartered for the voyage at 1500 dollars per month, the shipowners paying all expenses. This vessel takes 7000 chests of Congo tea, weighing 64 lbs. each, or 468,000 lbs. net, or 3510 peculs; which is purchased with money or goods, at the average cash price of twenty-four tale per pecul, amounting to Dollars 117,000

Charges: viz.

Insurance, (say on 120,000,) at 2 per cent.	2,400
Commission, at 2 per cent.	2,400
Interest for 12 months, at 6 per cent.	7,200
Charter, as above, for 12 months, at 1,500 per month	18,000
	<hr/> 30,000

Dollars 147,000

Thus, we find that 468,000 lbs. of Congo tea, equal in quality to the Company's, could be landed in England for 147,000 dollars; being somewhat less than $31\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the prime cost, (calculating the dollar at 4s. 6d. sterling,) instead of 300 per cent., as we pay at present.

And what equivalent does this country derive for its encouragement and expenditure on the East India Company? Nothing, or next to nothing, if we except the simple gratification of drinking tea. The spirit of any trade or commerce between two countries is allowed, on all hands, to consist in exportations equal, or nearly equal, in value to the importations, in a fair interchange of the respective productions of such countries. But have the East India Company encouraged such a reciprocity? We think we shall be able to show that they have invariably pursued measures having a tendency directly the reverse, and that they have recklessly thrown into the hands of foreigners a trade that would unquestionably have

saved this country from much of the commercial difficulties and distress which it has been doomed to suffer for years.

In a preceding Number of this work we observed, that the woollen manufactures of this country were peculiarly adapted to the climate, taste, and fashions of the Chinese; yet, nevertheless, we know that little or no progress, or encouragement, has ever been made, or given, by the East India Company for this article of consumption in China. At one time, and when this species of manufacture was of less value than it is at present, the exports of woollens from this country to China amounted to about one million and a half; but now the whole British exportations, by the East India Company, cannot be rated at more than seven hundred thousand pounds' worth; showing a *decline of nearly one half!* And, in reply to any inquiries on this point, the Company have the hardihood to state, that every exertion has been made on their part to promote the introduction of British goods, and they give an imposing detail of the means they have used for the purpose of effecting this. But when we come to examine how the fact stands, and to investigate the real state of the exportations to China from other parts of the world, we are irresistibly led to doubt the truth of what they set forth, or come to the more satisfactory and correct conclusion, which is this—that they have altogether lost the capacity.

How, otherwise, can we account for the fact, that while the trade of the Company has decreased, there has been no diminution in the supply of British articles of manufacture in the port of Canton? And how is it, that while all the exportations of the Company have been lessened in quantity and value, those of the Americans have increased in a greater ratio, and consist, very frequently, of various articles of British manufacture, which have ever been unknown to the trade of the Company? The fact is just as we have stated it; and we repeat, that although the exports of the Company from Great Britain have decreased, the demand for, and consumption of, British goods have in nowise fallen off in China; and that, instead of a deficiency in the supply of such goods, there is a considerable increase yearly,—establishing the fact that, while there is no disinclination on the part of the Chinese to purchase and use such articles of commerce, the trade and the supply have passed from the legitimate channels, and have been forced into the hands of foreigners, to the manifest injury of the British public. The Americans, by the unshackled state of their commerce, by the free exercise of their active and liberal commercial principles, by the cheapness of their purchases, by the moderation of their freight and their charges, have gradually been driving the East India Company from a most material branch of commerce; and they have the merit of introducing into China, as well as to other parts of the world, various articles of British produce, which,

as far as depended upon our great commercial junta, would for ever remain unknown abroad, and be useless and unavailing at home.

We owe much to the Americans,—more than our countrymen seem willing to give them credit for,—much more than the East India Company will ever allow. The manufacturer of Great Britain is greatly indebted to the American; and, but for the little provision about an annual export of British goods inserted in the charter of the East India Company, he would be infinitely more indebted to him than he is at present. We owe to the American the knowledge that a free trade to China is perfectly compatible with the inclinations and wants of the people of that country, which the East India Company would fain make us believe was not the case. It is to the American that we owe the proof that the productions of China can be conveyed to any quarter of the world at one-third the rate charged by the East India Company, and still realize a handsome mercantile profit; it is to the American we owe the introduction of British cotton and printed goods to halve the population of the East, which the Company confess they have in vain endeavoured to introduce; it is to the American we owe the knowledge that it is the monopoly of the East India Company alone that has prevented British shippers from becoming the carriers to Europe, and almost every other nation, in one of the most bulky articles of commerce, and one which employs more shipping, in proportion to its value, than almost any other article in trade; it is to the American we owe the proof that a voyage of nearly the same length and danger as from England to China can be performed with facility once a year in succession, while the Company's ships take two years; it is to the American we owe the knowledge of the practical fact, that a voyage to India and back can be performed under ten pounds a ton, while the Company rate their precious voyages at twenty-three and twenty-seven pounds. And, finally, it is to the American that we owe the knowledge of the fact, that the tea for which we pay from five to ten shillings the pound, ought, on fair and equitable terms, to be given to us for two and four shillings the pound.

All this would, of course, be concealed by the East India Company; but it is the pride and boast of the Americans to have disclosed it; and whether we are permitted or not to benefit by the knowledge of these things, still we have to thank them for the information and the proof. The Americans have all along proceeded on the true commercial principle which recognises, that whatever may be the direction of the capital employed by any one nation whatever may be the circuitous nature of its operations, and whether employed collaterally or directly in the commerce with other nations, the wealth and profits it accumulates eventually return to the bosom of the country from whence it first issued. In amassing as some of them have done, the greatest commercial fortunes in the

world, they have arrived at the practical knowledge, that whatever shape their capital may have taken, the direction, and the tangible return of it, invariably remain with the party who first put it into action. This never appears to have entered into the imagination of the East India Company; and the consequence has been, and will continue to be, that they are unable to compete with the free trade of the Americans, (and would be much less able to compete with the free trade of the British merchant, did it exist;) that, in a short time they will, in all probability, be altogether ousted by them from the export trade to China; and that, unless a speedy remedy be applied, the monopoly will stand a monument of the legislative folly of the British nation, who philanthropically bestows all its benefits on foreigners, to the exclusion not only of the Company itself, but of every individual in the mother country.

We stated in a previous page, that the equivalent which this country derived for the encouragement and expenditure so freely bestowed on the East India Company, amounted to little or nothing; that, compared with the payment of 8,000,000*l.* sterling per annum for importations from China, our exports, through the means of the Company, were insignificant; and we now proceed to show that, in stating this, we are not distorting the fact. We know that the return cargoes of tea, (taking into account the various qualities forming the Company's cargoes,) amount, per annum, to 25,000,000 lbs., purchased in

Canton at.....	£1,700,000
The Silk bought by the Company is nearly.....	70,000
And the Nankeens.....	30,000
To which add, Factory expenses, Commission, &c.	350,000

Giving, (we stated before, 2000,000 <i>l.</i> .) the value of the Company's importations from China.....	2,070,000
Against this, we have the original value of the Company's Exports from England, only.....	700,000

Leaving 1,470,000

One million four hundred and seventy thousand pounds, thus becomes the sum necessary for the Company for their purchases at Canton, after the trifling amount of their exports; and, as they profess to be great losers by their outward investments, it is natural to inquire how they came at this sum. This, it will be found, is supplied from the Company's surplus revenue in India, either by shipments of cotton, &c., consigned to Canton, or by bills of exchange drawn by the supercargoes on the different Presidencies; and therefore the account in reality will be found to stand thus:—

Surplus revenue in India.....	£1,470,000
British Exports.....	700,000

Giving £2,170,000

Which sum covers the whole of their purchases and expenses in the year; and for which the good people of England pay four millions sterling, besides four millions more of Government duty. Moreover, we are convinced that, had there not been a provision in the Company's charter, compelling a certain exportation of British goods, the export of British manufacture would, long ere now, have ceased altogether; and we believe that the Company, having ample means in India to answer all the purposes of their investments in China, have long sincerely wished that that provision had never been introduced; having then the power, which they have given too powerful manifestations of using, not to have any thing whatever to do with the exportation of the productions of their own country.

Having now given an account of the relative value of the importations and exportations of the Company's trade with China, and having shown, by the example of the Americans, that there is a total mismanagement on the part of this country in that trade, we may be permitted to offer a few observations on the commerce of the West India Islands and the colonies in tea, silk, and nankeens; and here again we shall be able to prove, that a system of gross delusion, and of the most disgraceful mismanagement, has been palmed upon the British public. An account on this subject was presented by the India House, purporting that the quantity of teas, from 1811 to 1818 inclusive, amounted to 4,378,607 lbs. From the preamble to this account, a person cursorily glancing it over would be apt to infer that this was *bona fide* an export trade, entirely distinct from home consumption; but, upon a close examination, the reader will find, that Ireland is included in that account of exports, to the amount of 3,439,742 lbs., and that the exports to the British colonies and West India Islands amount to no more than 771,075 lbs. This was a delusion utterly unworthy of the persons who may have been instrumental in drawing up the statement. But how will they account for the fact, that, while that statement shows the exports to the British colonies and the West Indies to be no more than 771,075 lbs., in a previous period, say 1814, they amounted to 1,200,500 lbs.? We believe that the account was drawn up in the cunning manner described, to hide the disgraceful fact that their trade to the colonies fell off about one-half, and to delude all those interested into a belief that it had greatly increased.

After what has been already said, it will be unnecessary to go into any detailed statement to prove, that the trade to the colonies in teas, &c., is now in the hands of the Americans; and hence the decrease in the Company's exportations. During the American war, when a temporary interruption had taken place in the illicit supplies, the export trade from Great Britain suddenly rose from 236,144 lbs. to 1,200,577 lbs.; an evidence that, while straitened in the illicit trade by temporary restrictions, the colonies

immediately had recourse to the mother country for a supply; and if any doubt on this subject has any existence, it will be removed, by observing that the importations into the West India Islands and the colonies subsided, in 1815, from 1,300,500 lbs. to 794,500 lbs.; and further still, in 1816, in 500,250 lbs. Nothing can prove more clearly than this, that the British colonies, and the West India Islands, have almost entirely been supplied by the Americans; and that the trifling quantity imported from the mother country, is used as a mere blind to an extensive traffic in illicit supplies to those parts. It is not difficult to form a correct estimate of the extent of that illicit trade which has been created by monopoly prices of the East India Company. During the temporary interruption to which we have just referred, we find that the extent of the trade was 1,300,500 lbs.; and it is more than probable that, even at this time, the Americans contrived to send supplies illicitly, and that the consumption amounted to about 2,000,000 lbs. in 1814. We know that the consumption of tea has invariably increased wherever it is freely introduced; and there is very little doubt of its having increased in the West Indies and the colonies, as well as in all other places. The imports from Canton to America, in 1814-15, amounted to 4,514,280 lbs., and in 1824-25, they augmented to 11,000,000 lbs., giving an increase, in ten years, of 6,485,720 lbs. The same ratio of increase may, with great propriety, be applied to the places we now speak of; and the probable consumption there, at this day, is about 5,000,000 lbs. annually, of which the mother country does not supply *one-fifth*.

Here, then, is another of the baneful influences of the Company's system of exclusion. While, on one hand, our own peculiar manufactures and commerce are forced, by their apathy and extravagance, into foreign shipping, the very supply of our colonies, on the other hand, is wrested from us, in those very goods which China produces, and becomes the prize of an illicit trade. The present exports of America from China amount to the enormous quantity of 15,000,000 lbs., a quantity far beyond their consumption; and when we examine how they dispose of the surplus, we find, to the disgrace of our own country, (whose merchants ought to be the carriers to the whole of Europe, if skill and enterprise give them any title,) that they supply Hamburgh, Altona, Bremen, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp; the whole coast to the extremity of the Mediterranean; Canada and the West India islands; Mexico, Chili, Peru; in short, every corner of the globe;—and all this time no British merchantman, out of the pale of the Company, is permitted to carry a cargo of this article, and is liable to seizure, if found to the westward of the Cape, with more than a few pounds' weight of tea on board! Our observations on the American trade in tea are equally applicable to all other articles of Chinese produce, as we learn from

the following short statement of a well-informed American gentleman :

‘The supply of the British colonies and West India Isles is principally in our hands, in tea, silk piece-goods, and nankeens. They are generally sent to the neutral island of St. Thomas’s, where the small vessels from the various ports go with coffee, rum, sugar, dollars, and other articles, and return with supplies of tea, silk, &c. The supply of Canada is also with us. Our exports this season from Canton, in silk piece-goods, have been about 520,000 pieces, 28,000 pieces of which were scarfs, shawls, and handkerchiefs; not one-tenth of these are used for our own consumption, but principally go to the West India Islands. Of 160,000 chests of tea exported from China, or about 11,000,000 lbs. to America, a very considerable part is re-exported to Canada and other places. This quantity of tea is exclusive of our direct shipments to Europe.

Although we have extended this article to an unusual length, much remains yet to advance on the subject of it which must be deferred. We cannot conclude, however, without adverting to the benefits which even a *partial* admission to the trade of India has conferred on this country. After every attempt for a freer commerce to that quarter of the world had been baffled for twenty years, no sooner was the partial concession made, than the former contemptible traffic of about 400,000*l.* annually, became, in a short period of time, an opening to the industry of the British nation, to the amount of from three to four millions annually; and, since 1813, it has continued to fluctuate between those amounts. The commerce with India was no sooner relieved from the leaden influence of the Company’s monopoly, than it took a flight, and maintained a course, outstripping the anticipations of the most sanguine, and yielding, at the same time, the most substantial benefits to the commercial interests of the country. The trade of the Company to India, before the admission we are speaking of, was precisely of the same nature as that which they are at present carrying on to China,—that is to say, they sent out productions from this country, somewhat less than *one-sixth* the value of their importations. There is any thing but a system of reciprocity—the life and spirit of a mercantile community. It is truly melancholy to find, at this time of day, a powerful collective body of one’s own countrymen so recklessly regardless of the prosperity and dignity of their native land, and so warped by selfishness and an inordinate thirst for worldly patronage, as obstinately to shut their ears and eyes to the demands and wants of the community, and rather suffer a foreign nation to participate with themselves in the ill-gotten spoil which they have too long been amassing, than to entertain a thought of sharing it with their own countrymen.

TALES OF PERSIA.

No. I.

Bebut the Ambitious.

‘Hear this true story, and see whither you may be conducted by ambition.’

HAFIZ, *the Persian Poet.*

IN one of the suburbs of Ispahan, under the reign of Abbas the First, there lived a poor working jeweller. In his neighbourhood he was known by the name of Bebut the Honest. Numberless were the proofs of probity and disinterestedness which had gained for him this title.

In all disputes and quarrels, he was the chosen arbiter. His decisions were generally as conclusive as those of the Kazi himself. Laborious, active, and intelligent, and esteemed by all who knew him, Bebut was happy; and his happiness was still enhanced by love. Tamira, the beautiful daughter of his patron, was the object of his attachment, which she returned. One thought alone disturbed his felicity; he was poor, and the father of Tamira would never accept a son-in-law without a fortune. Bebut, therefore, often meditated upon the means of getting rich. His thoughts dwelt so much on this subject, that ambition at length became a dangerous rival to the softer sentiment.

There was a grand festival in the harem. In the midst of it, the great Schah Abbas dropped the royal aigrette, called jigha, the mark of sovereignty among the Mussulmans. In changing his position, that it might be sought for, he inadvertently trod upon it, and it was broken. The officer who had charge of the crown jewels knew the reputation of Bebut; to him he applied to repair this treasure. None but the most honest could be trusted with an article of such value, and who was there so honest as Bebut? Bebut was enraptured with the confidence. He promised to prove himself deserving of it.

Now Bebut holds in his hands the richest gems of Persia and the Indies. Ambition has already stolen into his bosom. Could it be silent on an occasion like this? It ought to have been so, but it was not.

‘A single one of these numerous diamonds,’ said Bebut to himself, ‘would make my fortune and that of Tamira! I am incapable of a breach of trust; but were I to commit one, would Abbas be the worse for it? No, so far from it, he would have made two of his subjects happy without being aware. Now, any body else situated as I am, would manage to put aside a vast treasure out of a job like this; but one, and that a very small one, of these many gems will be enough for me. It will be wrong, I confess, but I

will replace it by a false one, cut and enchased with such exquisite taste and skill, that the value of the workmanship shall make up for any want of value in the material. It will be impossible to see the change : God and the Prophet will see it plainly enough, I know ; but I will atone for the sin, and it shall be my only one. Some time or other I will go a pilgrimage to Mashad, or even to Mecca should my remorse grow troublesome.

Thus, by the power of a 'but' did Bebut the Honest contrive to quiet his conscience. The diamond was removed ; a bit of chrysolite took its place, and the jigha appeared more brilliant than ever to the courtiers of Abbas, who, as they never spoke to him but with their foreheads in the dust, could, of course, form a very accurate estimate of the lustre of his jewels.

One day during the spring equinox, as the chief of the sectaries of Ali, according to the custom of Persia, was sitting at the gate of his palace to hear the complaints of his people, a mechanic from the suburb of Julfa broke through the crowd ; he prostrated himself at the feet of the Abbas, and prayed for justice ; he accused the kazi of corruption, and of having condemned him wrongfully. 'My adversary and I,' said he, 'at first appealed to Bebut the Honest, who decided in my favour.' Being informed who the Bebut was whose name for honesty stood so high in the suburb of Julfa, the Schah ordered the kazi into his presence. The monarch heard both sides and weighed the affair maturely. He then pronounced for the decision of Bebut the Honest, whom he ordered the kalantar, or governor of the city, immediately to bring before him.

When Bebut saw the officer and his escort halt before the shop where he worked, a sudden tremor ran through his frame ; but he was much worse when, in the name of the Schah, the officer commanded him to follow. He was on the point of offering his head at once, in order to save the trouble of a superfluous ceremony which could not, he thought, but end with the scymitar. However he composed himself, and followed the kalantar.

Arrived before Abbas, he did not dare lift his eyes, lest he should see the fatal aigrette, and the false diamond rise up in judgment against him. Half dead with fright, he thought he already beheld the fierce rikas advancing with their horrid hatchets*.

'Bebut, and you, Ismael-kazi,' said Abbas to them, 'listen. Since, of the two, it is the jeweller who best administers justice, the jeweller be a judge, and the judge be a jeweller. Ismael, to Bebut's place in the workshop of his master : may you acquit yourself as well in his office, as he is sure to do in yours.'

The sentence was punctually executed ; and I am told that Ismael turned out an excellent jeweller.

* Guards of the King of Persia.

Bebut-kazi, on his side, took possession of his place. He was quite determined to limit his ambition to becoming the husband of Tamira, and living holily. He immediately asked her in marriage, and was immediately accepted. Bebut thought himself at the summit of his wishes. He was forming the most delightful projects, when again the kalantar of Ispahan appeared at his door. Still, full of the fright into which this worthy person's first visit had thrown him, he received him with more flurry than politeness. He inquired confusedly to what he was indebted for the honour of this second visit. The kalantar replied, 'When I went to the house of your patron to transmit to you the mandate of the magnanimous Abbas, I saw there the beautiful Tamira with the gazelle eyes, the rose of Ispahan, brilliant as the azure campac which only grows in Paradise. Her glance produced on me the magical effect of the seal of Solomon, and I resolved to take her for my wife. I went this very morning to her father, but his word was given to you; and Bebut-kazi is the only obstacle to my happiness. Listen! I possess great riches, and have powerful friends; give up to me your claim on Tamira, and, ere long, I will get you appointed divan-beghi; you shall be the chief sovereign of justice in the first city in the universe; I will give you my own sister for a wife, she who was formerly the nightingale of Iran, the dove of Babylon. I leave you to reflect on my offer; to-morrow I return for the answer.'

The new kazi was thunderstruck. 'What! yield my Tamira to him for his sister! Why, she may be old and ugly; 'tis like exchanging a pearl of Bahrein for one of Mascata; but he is powerful. If I do not consent, he will deprive me of my place; and I like my place; and yet I would freely sacrifice it for Tamira. But were I no longer kazi, would her father keep his promise? Doubtful. I love Tamira more than all the world; but we must not be selfish; we must forget our own interest, when it injures those we love. To deprive Tamira of a chance of being the wife of a kalantar would be doing her an injury. How could I have the heart to force her to forego such a glory, merely for the sake of the poor insignificant kazi that I am! I should never get over it; 'tis done! I will immolate my happiness to hers! I shall be very wretched; but—but—I shall be divan-beghi.'

If Bebut the Honest, misled by dawning avarice, fancied he committed his first fault for the sake of love, and not of ambition, he must have been undeceived when these two rival passions came into competition, and he could only banish the first. If his eyes were not opened, those of the world began to be; for, from that moment, he lost, (when he had more need of them than ever,) the esteem and confidence he had hitherto inspired, and became known by the name of Bebut the Ambitious.

Not yet aware that the higher we rise in rank, the harder we find it to be virtuous, he was for ever flattering himself with the future.

Now, his conduct was to be such as should edify the whole body of the magistracy of Ispahan, of which he was become the head. He would not be satisfied with going to Mecca to visit the black stone, the temple of Kaaba, and purifying himself in the waters of Zam-zim, the miraculous spring which God caused to issue from the earth for Agar, and his son Ismael. He would do more; he would distribute a double *zekâth** to the poor, and win back for the *divan-beghi* the noble title which the people gave to the mechanic of the suburb of Julfa.

The first judgment which he pronounced as *divan-beghi*, bore evidence of this excellent resolution; but an unfortunate event occurred, which proved the truth of the following verse of the renowned Ferdusi, in his poem of the 'Schah-nameh.' †

'Our first fault, like the prolific poppy of Aboulige, produces seeds innumerable. The wind wafts them away, and we know not where they fall, or when they may rise; but this we know, they meet us at every step upon the path of life, and strew it with plants of bitterness and poison.'

The royal aigrette of Schah Abbas was again broken, and immediately confided to an old comrade of Bebut. He had not, however, the surname of 'Honest,' and his work was consequently subjected to a cautious scrutiny. Now, it was discovered that a very fine diamond had been taken from the jigha and fraudulently replaced; the unfortunate jeweller was arrested and dragged to the tribunal of the *divan-beghi*. The ambitious Bebut felt that there was no chance for him if he did not hurry the affair to an immediate close. He forthwith condemned his innocent fellow-labourer to the punishment due to his own iniquity, and the sentence was executed on the instant.

His conscience told him that a man like him was unworthy to administer justice to his fellow-citizens. A pilgrimage to Mecca would now no longer suffice to appease his remorse; his ambition told him it could be lulled by nothing but luxury and splendour. By severe exactions, he amassed large sums; and by gifts contrived to gain over the most influential members of the *divan*; he thus got appointed Khan of Schamachia, and, from the modest distinctions of the judicature, he passed to the turbulent honours of military power, — a change by no means rare in Persia.

Abbas was then collecting all his forces to march against the province of Kandahar, and to reduce the Afghans, who have since

* *Zekâth* is the Persian name for the tithe of alms which the Koran enjoins to be distributed among the poor.

† *Schah-nameh* signifies the royal book. It was composed by order of Mahmoud the Gaznevide, and contains in 60,000 distichs, the history of the ancient sovereigns of Persia.

ruled over his descendants. In the battles fought on this occasion, Bebat the Ambitious gained the signal favour of an equally ambitious; for Abbas was an indefatigable conqueror, whom fortune, with all her favours, could never satisfy.

The Khan of Schamachia was so thoroughly devoted to his master, so blindly subservient to his will, that he presently became his confidant. He was the very man for the favour of a despot; he had no opinion of his own, and could always find good reasons for those to which he assented. This, in the eyes of Abbas, constituted an excellent counsellor.

The monarch triumphed. Conqueror of the Kurdes, the Georgians, the Turks, and the Afghans, he re-entered Ispahan in triumph. He had already made it the capital of his dominions, and now proposed to himself to enjoy there quietly, in the midst of his glory, the fruits of his vast conquests: but the heart of the ambitious can never know repose. The grandeur of the sovereign crushed the people; Abbas felt this; he knew that, though powerful, he was detested; he trembled even in the inmost recesses of his palace. In pursuance of the Oriental policy which has of late years been introduced into Europe, he resolved to give a diversion to the general hatred, which, in concentrating itself towards a single point, endangered the safety of his throne. With this design, he established, in the principal towns, numerous colonies from the nations he had conquered, and gave them privileges which excited the jealousy of the original inhabitants. The nation immediately divided into two powerful factions, the one calling itself the Polenks, the other the Felenks party. Abbas took care to keep up their strength; by alternately exciting and moderating their violence, he distracted their attention from the affairs of government. The disputes between them sometimes looked very serious; but they were kept under until the festival of the birth-day of the Schah; on that occasion, the contenders were at last permitted to show their joy by a general fight. Armed with sticks and stones, they strewed the streets with bodies of the dying and the dead. Then the royal troops suddenly appeared, and proclaiming the day's amusements at an end, with slashes of their sabres, drove back the Polenks and the Felenks to their homes.

But no sooner had this great politician ceased to treat his people, than he began first to dread his court, and next, his own family. Of his three sons, two had, by his command, been deprived of sight. By the laws of Persia, they were consequently declared incapable of reigning, and imprisoned in the castle of Alamuth.* He had only one now remaining. This was the noble and generous

* That is to say, the *Castle of the Dead*. It was situated in the Mazanderan, (the ancient Hircania), and had been the abode of the Old Man of the Mountain, the Prince of Assassins.

Safi Mirza—the delight of his father, and the hope of the people. His brilliant qualities, however, were destined only to be his destruction.

Abbas was one day musing, with some uneasiness, on the valour and popular virtues of his son, when the young prince suddenly appeared. He threw himself at his father's feet. He presented him a note which he had just received, and in which, without discovering their names, the nobles of the kingdom declared their weariness of his tyranny. They proposed to the youth to ascend the throne, and undertook to clear his way to it. Safi Mirza, indignant at a project which tended to turn him into a parricide, declared all to the Schah, and placed himself entirely at his disposal. Abbas embraced him, covered him with caresses, and felt his affection for him increase; but, from that moment, his fears redoubled. His anxiety even prevented him from sleeping. In order to get at the conspirators, he caused numbers of really innocent persons to die in tortures; and, feeling that every execution rendered him still more odious, he feared that his son would be again solicited, and would not again have virtue to resist.

This state of terror and suspicion becoming insupportable to him, he resolved to rid himself of it at any cost. A slave was ordered to murder the Prince. He refused to obey, and presented his own head. 'Have I, then, none but ingrates and traitors about me, to eat my bread and salt?' cried Abbas,—'I swear by my sabre and by the Koran, that, to him who will remove Safi Mirza, my generosity and gratitude shall be boundless.' Bebut the Ambitious advanced, and said,—'It is written, that what the King wills cannot be wrong. To me thy will is sacred—it shall be obeyed.' He went immediately to seek the Prince. He met him coming out of the bath, accompanied by a single akta or valet. He drew his sabre, and presenting the Royal mandate,—'Safi Mirza,' said he, 'submit! Thy father wills thy death!' 'My father wills my death!' exclaimed the unfortunate Prince, with a tone "more in sorrow than in anger." 'What have I done, that he should hate me?' And Bebut laid him dead at his feet.

As a reward for his crime, Abbas sent him the royal vest, called the calaata, and immediately created him his Etimadoulet, or Prime Minister.

Paternal love, however, presently resumed its power. Remorse now produced the same effect upon the King, as terror had done before. His nights seemed endless. The bleeding shade of his son incessantly appeared before him, banishing the peace and slumber to which it had been sacrificed. Shrouded in the garb of mourning, the Monarch of Persia dismissed all pleasure from his Court; and, during the rest of his life, could not be known by his attire from the meanest of his subjects.

One day he sent for Bebut, who found him standing on the steps of his throne, entirely clothed in scarlet, the red turban of twelve folds around his head,—in short, in the garb assumed by the Kings of Persia when preparing to pronounce the decree of death. Bebut shuddered. 'It is written,' said the Schah, 'that what the King wills cannot be wrong. Give me to-day the same proof of thy obedience which thou didst once before.' Bebut, thou hast a son—bring me his head! Bebut attempted to speak. 'Bebut, Etimadoulet, Khan of Schamachia—is, then, thy ambition satiated, that thou hesitatest to satisfy my commands? Obey! Thy life depends on it!'

Bebut returned with the head of his only child. 'Well,' said the father of Mirza, with a horrid smile, 'How dost feel?'—'Let these tears tell you how,' answered the unhappy Khan: 'I have killed with my own hand the being I loved best on earth. You can ask nothing beyond. This day, for the first time, I have cursed ambition, which could subject me to a necessity like this.'—'Go,' said the Monarch: 'You can now judge what you have made me suffer, in murdering my son. Ambition has rendered us the two most wretched beings in the Empire. But, be it your comfort, that your ambition can soar no higher; for this last deed has brought you on a level with your Sovereign.*

* A King coolly ordering one of his subjects to cut off the head of his own child, and being obeyed, is a circumstance so monstrous, that it would appear beyond all possibility, if it were not supported by numerous examples. But, incredible as it may seem, it only paints the common manners of a Court, where tyranny, and the vices which it engenders, altogether extinguish the influence of nature. I will cite some instances in proof of what I allege, from the Reign of Safi the First, the successor of Abbas, and son of the same Safi Mirza mentioned in this narrative.

The Schah Safi, after having with his own hand put to death a part of his family—for, at that time, in the Court of Persia, there were no regular executioners—the Sovereign either executing his sentences himself, or charging the first person he saw to do it for him,—he next resolved to rid himself also of the three sons of Isa-Khan, his uncle; and, after the murder, ordered the three bloody heads to be served up at the table of their father and mother! The latter remained for a moment thunderstruck at this horrible sight; but soon throwing herself at the feet of Safi, she kissed them, and said,—'All is well. May God give the King a long and glorious life!' Isa-Khan added, that, far from feeling displeasure at such a spectacle, had he known that Safi desired the heads of his children, he would have anticipated his orders, and brought them to him himself.

Some time after, Schah-Safi put to death the Grand Master of his Guard, by the hand of one of the particular friends of that officer, who did not suffer his intimacy to induce him to decline the commission. Having afterwards called to him the son of the victim, he inquired what he thought of the death of his father. 'Why do you call him my father?'

Abbas received from his subjects and posterity the surname of THE GREAT. Bebut the Ambitious was presently known only by the title of Bebut THE INFAMOUS. It is said, he was a short time after stabbed by the son of the unfortunate jeweller, whom he had so unjustly condemned to death when divan-beghi. Thus were the words of the poet Ferdusi verified. His first fault was the cause of all the others, and their common punishment.

SONNET.

IN infancy, her little hand would share
 Each baby gift; nor could she think the flower
 Or fruit were sweet, until the happy hour
 Of giving half away—in childhood fair
 She still pursued the same unselfish care,
 To twine her roses round some other's bower;
 And when at last her young heart felt the power
 Of trustful love, she deemed that others were
 As innocent; and thus her soul was given,
 Not with chill compromise, but whole and free,
 Forgetful of herself, alas! and heaven,
 Until she found that man's cold perfidy
 Can leave the unpitied victim in her tears
 To weep his hour of triumph through corroding years.

cried the monster. 'I recognise no father but my Sovereign. Blessed be he in all his actions!' How fond the people of these countries must be of life!

Chardin and Tavernier abound with similar accounts, which prove to what a degree the words vice and virtue vary in their value and significance among these nations with the varying characters of their different kings. The Ambitious, once in the path of shame and distinction, for they were there always synonymous, were forced to proceed in the same course to the end of the chapter; as those once initiated in the mysteries of Isis, could never retrace their steps. In these royal dens, where humanity was treated as high treason, and pity as sedition, twenty crimes were often necessary to procure forgiveness for a single good action. Thevenot relates, that a young Akhta, of Safi, having turned his head that he might not see that of a Persian noble cut into pieces, the Schah remarked,—'Since your sight is so delicate, it must be useless to you;' and immediately commanded his eyes to be torn out.

DOCTRINE OF SUMMARY COMMITMENT FOR UNCONSTRUCTIVE CON-
TEMPTS OF PARLIAMENT, AND OF COURTESY OF JUSTICE.

No. VIII.

IN 1824, (March 1,) Mr. Abercrombie brought before the House of Commons a complaint of a breach of privilege committed by the Lord Chancellor. The circumstances on which this complaint was founded, bear some analogy to those to which the attention of the House was called on two former occasions. On the first of these, Mr. Burke contented himself with uttering a dignified reply to Lord Thurlow's intemperance; and on the last, Mr. Whitbread made a mean attempt to avenge the offensive expressions of the Archbishop of York, on the printer who had faithfully reported them. Mr. Abercrombie adopted neither of these courses, but proposed to institute some proceeding against the Lord Chancellor, the nature of which neither he nor any of his friends explained. They insisted that the breach of privilege was manifest and aggravated; that they were bound to resent it, in proportion to the rank of the person from whom it had proceeded; and endeavoured, by such addresses to the passions, to induce the House to take a leap in the dark, by committing itself to a demand of redress in some form; by concurring in Mr. Abercrombie's motion, 'that Mr. Farquharson, of 233, Strand, (the short-hand writer,) be ordered to attend the House tomorrow.' No fewer than 103 were willing to take this leap; but 151 refused, and thereby saved the House from being placed in a situation of the greatest embarrassment, from which it could neither advance with safety, nor retreat with dignity.

Now, if there were any truth in the pretences under which the House seizes upon editors of newspapers and pamphleteers, and sends them to Newgate,—if their injurious comments on its proceedings, or those of individual members, were, as Lord Ellenborough said, as real obstructions as the forcible prevention of members from attending in their places, the rejection of Mr. Abercrombie's motion would have been disgraceful; for, undoubtedly, the higher the quarter whence any real obstruction proceeds, the more does it concern the respectability and usefulness of the House, and the interests of their constituents; that it should be effectually abated. But since those pretences are founded in an absurd fiction, and since they have betrayed the House into injustice in every instance in which they have been acted upon, it was far better that the House should be awed from entering on an unjustifiable and impracticable course, though its forbearance should not be ascribed

to the noblest motives. The event cannot be without its influence, if it should ever again be attempted to raise a question of privileges on an allegation of constructive contempt.

It is not necessary to state all the technical observations on the practice of the Court of Chancery which Mr. Abercrombie made in his speech in support of Mr. Williams's motion on that subject on the 24th of February. These were, as might have been expected, inaccurately reported in some of the newspapers; and the Lord Chancellor, who unaccountably took it for granted that the report which was put into his hands was correct, when he ought to have been well assured that Mr. Abercrombie could not possibly have fallen into the mistakes which the erroneous report of his speech attributed to him, took occasion, on the 28th February, to pronounce, from his seat in the Court of Chancery, a peremptory contradiction of all the points which had been misrepresented in the printed speech. There was nothing objectionable in the mode of his contradiction, except in the following passages: 'With respect to appeals and rehearings, it is supposed that I have heard them on new evidence, and thereby brought discredit on some part of the Court (the Vice Chancellor.) *It is an utter falsehood.*'—'Therefore, really before things are so represented, particularly by gentlemen *with gowns on their backs*, they should at least take care to be accurate, for it is their business to be so.' This was the head and front of the Lord Chancellor's offending. Considering his expressions as intemperate and indecorous, they carried their own sufficient punishment along with them; considering them as an attack on Mr. Abercrombie, they were quite harmless, and fell short of their object. What a spectacle, then, would the House of Commons have afforded, if it had proceeded to address the King, for a rash and angry word which ought not to have been spoken! How many of his prosecutors or judges would have been entitled to throw a stone at him! What a contrast between such a proceeding and the impeachments of two of Lord Eldon's predecessors for corruption in their high offices!

Let us now calmly review some of the many notable things that were said, 'in the heat of debate,' on the 1st of March, 1824. Mr. Abercrombie said: 'If, on the contrary, it can be proved that the seat of justice has been degraded by the delivery from it of false statements and assertions, imputing to me opinions and statements which I never uttered nor entertained, and tending to render me an infamous and degraded individual,—and if all this can be done without redress, then I ask of what use are the privileges of this House? and what must be the condition of every member of the profession of the law, who either is at present, or may be hereafter, a Member of the House?'—'It is not a formal, but a substantial breach of privilege, a direct attack on the security and freedom of debate, which

is the only legitimate object of privilege. What is the situation of any Member of this House, if the Lord Chancellor, or Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench, may presume to put false statements into his mouth, and send him forth a disgraced, and, as far as the authority of the judgment-seat can go, a ruined individual? By what tenure shall we then hold the freedom of debate, but at the will and caprice of any Lord Chancellor and any Chief Justice? If this condition be intolerable to all the Members of the House, how much more fatal will it be to those Members who also belong to the profession of the law, if they are subject, for what they say in this House, to be denounced by the Lord Chancellor from the Bench!—if any of the Judges, when any thing is uttered, or said to be uttered, in the House, which touches their feelings, are to denounce in the Court where he practises, a man who exists only by his honest exertions in his profession, and to destroy in a moment, by a false statement, his character not only as a professional man, but as a gentleman and a man of honour!—if the House do not protect its Members from this tyranny and despotism—(for what can be greater tyranny and despotism I cannot conceive)—nay, if it do not secure itself against all control of this kind,—if Lord Eldon be allowed to extinguish any Member of this House, by uttering these things of him from the judgment-seat, of what avail is the freedom of debate,—particularly to any man who shall at once be a Member of the House, and of the profession of the law!—‘*The result will be to lay the bar of England prostrate at the feet of Lord Eldon.*’

Here are injuries enough to justify the heaviest retribution on the head of Lord Eldon. To have been exposed to what tended to render him ‘infamous and degraded,’ ‘disgraced,’ ‘ruined,’ and ‘extinguished,’ the whole force of the tendency in question residing in ‘false statements,’ or rather in statements which had reference to a supposed speech which was never spoken, nor intended to be spoken! And how did the fact really stand with respect to the pretended danger of degradation and ruin to Mr. Abercrombie? Let Mr. Tierney answer. ‘IT IS IMPOSSIBLE THAT ANY MAN CAN STAND HIGHER THAN MY HONOURABLE FRIEND IN PUBLIC ESTIMATION. PERSONALLY, THEREFORE, HE HAS NOT THE SLIGHTEST INTEREST IN THIS QUESTION!’

Mr. Brougham directed his arguments *ad verecundiam*, and urged the House to proceed in the course of violence opened for it, because it had often done so before when the fate of meaner individuals was concerned, and would never be able to do so again if it shrunk from attacking the Lord Chancellor. This speech was most gratifying, because it contained a sort of assurance and pledge that, if this attempt failed, nothing similar should ever again be moved in the House of Commons. Besides his (Mr. Aber-

crombie's) character, across which not a shadow of a cloud has been thrown in the estimation of those who know him; and which now, by the confession of all men, has been so unjustifiably attacked; besides this, is there not a higher interest concerned in the present question,—the interest of the privileges of this House of Parliament?—privileges which, if the gross attack upon them, which has been brought under our notice, be disregarded, can exist no longer, except to be laughed at by those who hate us,—to be trampled on by those who would assail us,—to be found powerful against the weak, and impotent against the powerful.'—'I cannot conceive that hereafter, if the case passes unnoticed, it will be any thing less than insane to talk of vindicating, against more humble individuals, the privileges which the Chancellor is admitted to have violated; for no one, I imagine, will deny that he has most grossly violated the privileges of Parliament.'—'If we refuse to deal with this offence, and reserve our privileges to crush those humbler individuals, from whose attacks we have no danger to apprehend, even for this ignoble purpose they will be ineffectual.'—'It will be ridiculous to arm ourselves with the terrors of privilege, to guard against ridicule or invective, while we take no means to secure ourselves against a repetition of this gross and dangerous attack on the freedom of our debates, and the independence of so many of our Members.'

The speech of Mr. Scarlett surpassed all that were delivered that night in extravagance of vehemence; and the following specimen of rant and sophistry, showing that the House should consider itself bound to act, as it would do, if Lord Eldon had actually stripped Mr. Abercrombie of his gown and of his fortune, and sent him to prison, was received with 'loud and repeated cheers.'—'I would suppose that the Chancellor, or any other Judge, had, for any expressions used by a Member of that House, proceeded to commit him to prison,—what would the House say?—what would it do in such a case? I would ask, would not the House consider such a proceeding a gross violation of the privileges? Suppose the Chancellor, or the Judge, had proceeded against the Member by some process of the Court, would not the House consider such a proceeding a gross and violent invasion of its privileges? I ask the House, then, are they prepared to say that they would preserve the persons and property of its Members from attacks of the Chancellor, but that they are ready to surrender their characters to be disposed of at his pleasure? For myself, if I were to act according to my own feelings, I would much rather that the Chancellor should send me to prison,—I would much rather that he should strip me of my fortune and of my gown, than call me a liar, (*loud and repeated cheers,*) than call me a liar from the seat of justice.' (*Continued cheers.*)

Mr. Tierney's speech was much to the same purpose as Mr. Brougham's. 'If the House submit tamely to this insult, never again let us hear a word about privileges' (in cases of constructive attempt.) Amen, Amen! 'My opinion is directly the contrary; and I state it not for the purpose of a speech, but because I do in my conscience believe, that if this unhappy precedent be established, it will prevent the possibility of our ever exercising our privileges again. If it shall entail the consequence apprehended by Mr. Tierney, it will be the most happy precedent in the law.'

In the speech of Sir James Mackintosh, there are such strains of exaggeration as are very little in accordance with his eminent talents and high reputation. 'I cannot refrain from making a few observations on a question which is undoubtedly one of vital importance, convinced, as I feel, that the rejection of the present motion would be one of the most fatal blows that was ever struck at the privileges of this House, and at the constitution and liberties of this country.'—'If the House refuse to inquire into the charge now made against the Lord Chancellor of England, they will cast a stigma upon the profession of which I had once the honour to be an humble member, and the members of which ought for ever to be excluded from this House, if they are to be placed in such a miserable and precarious dependence on the Judges of the Crown.'—'If this is to be endured, the standing orders of the Grand Committee of Justice, which for centuries have formed a part of the functions and privileges of this House, ought to be erased from our journals. They will be a satire on our proceedings; they will remain only as landmarks to show how we have degenerated from our forefathers, who regarded them as an essential part of the Constitution, and who considered their maintenance a fundamental part of their duty.'—'The true question in this case is this. Is there any Member of this House who can deny that a breach of our privileges has been committed? None.' 'Sir James had heard several Members expressly deny it; and 151 Members denied it by their votes!'

Mr. Wynn said, 'he had no doubt that the Chancellor might, if he had thought fit, have punished the printer of the publication in question, (Mr. Abercrombie's speech,) for a contempt of the authority of the Court; but would that have been a dignified course? (Hear, hear, hear.) Certainly a most undignified, a most unjust course. But why should it be lawful for a Judge to do any judicial act that may be so characterised? Is it not equally undignified and unjust in the House of Commons to attach printers in the same summary manner? Yet they consider the power of degrading themselves by such violent and indecent proceedings one of the flowers of their privileges, and, to use the language of Sir James Mackintosh, 'a vital part of the Constitution and Liberties of this country!'

In August 1824, Bombay was destined to afford another instance of summary punishment, for a constructive contempt against the Supreme Court,* but more aggravated, more complicated, and involving the reputation of a man who had hitherto enjoyed a very large share of the admiration, respect, and esteem of his countrymen. This case is, indeed, conceived and executed in the true spirit of despotism; all its lineaments have a sharpness of finish that indicate the hand of a master; and the fatal facility with which this perfection of skill is acquired by those from whom it might have been least expected, ought to hasten the revocation of that arbitrary power conceded to Indian Governors, which is equally a stumbling-block to themselves, and a source of oppression to those on whom it may be exercised, and a reproach to the country which sanctions all the misery which it occasions.

The manner in which the proceedings of the Supreme Court were reported in 'The Bombay Gazette,' had occasionally given dissatisfaction to the Chief Justice, Sir Edward West. If any material errors had crept into those reports, there were various ways open to the Chief Justice of correcting the misrepresentations, and setting himself right with the profession and with the world. If irritated pride required the superaddition of punishment, he had in his own hands more than sufficient means of inflicting it. But in the opinion of the Chief Justice, the measure of his power was too scant. He eyed the Governor's prerogative of summary transportation with envy. He whose life had been spent in the study and practice of the law of England, and whose duty and privilege it was to stand between the people and the plague of arbitrary power,—to restrain and discountenance tyranny with all zeal and firmness,—proposed to the Governor, the Hon. M. Elphinstone, and requested that he would cause to be arrested and sent to England, the Editor of 'The Bombay Gazette,' whenever his mode of reporting the proceedings of the Supreme Court should again be offensive to himself, or to his colleague, Sir C. Chambers!†

With a lamentable acquiescence in so extraordinary a proposition, the Editors of 'The Gazette and Courier' were accordingly

* The first instance was that of the Recorder of Bombay suspending the Barristers, the full detail of which will be found in 'The Oriental Herald' for April, 1824, p. 691. It is not, therefore, deemed necessary to repeat it here.

† In justice to Sir Edward West, it is necessary to state, that subsequent information has proved him to have had no share whatever in this deportation of Mr. Fair. This has been again and again stated and explained in former Numbers of this publication. The whole transaction was undoubtedly despotic in the extreme, but the guilt of its execution rests with Mr. Elphinstone alone.

warned of the perilous task they would undertake in reporting the speeches of the Judges. They were not, however, informed that on every complaint of misrepresentation which the Judges might address to the Governor, they would not be permitted to adduce evidence of the accuracy of their reports, though the whole audience should be ready to testify in their favour, but that the averments of the Judges would be considered conclusive. Of this determination, the Editor of 'The Gazette,' Mr. Fair, received official intimation from the Chief Secretary, Mr. Farish, when it was too late, when, relying on the fidelity of his report, except in as far as he might have understated some things, he had reported in his 'Gazette,' of the 11th August what had occurred in Court on the 6th August, when Sir C. Chambers was the only Judge on the Bench. The matter before the Court, was a contempt alleged to have been committed by Mr. Shaw, a young Civilian, in striking a chobdar (a servant carrying a silver stick,) stationed in a remote part of the Court room which led to the private apartments of the Judges' families. Of this the chobdar had made affidavit, and Mr. Shaw had denied it in a counter affidavit. The immediate question under discussion was, whether certain interrogatories, on which Mr. Shaw was to be examined touching his contempt, had been regularly filed; his counsel, the Advocate-General, maintaining that, as the supposed contempt was not committed within the view or hearing of the Court, there ought to be a private prosecutor, and in this case there was none. The Court had before intimated their expectation, that the Advocate-General would consider it *his* duty to stand forward as prosecutor; and had not only failed in persuading him to take that view of his duty, but had the mortification to see him act as counsel for the defendant. In reply to the Advocate-General, Sir C. Chambers said, it was sufficient that the contempt was committed within the precincts to enable the Court to dispense with a private prosecutor, and to prosecute through the medium of its own officer, the clerk of the Crown; and insisted with much warmth, that no higher contempt could be conceived than that which Mr. Shaw was alleged to have committed. Whether speaking as a private gentleman, or in his official situation, he could not conceive a grosser insult could be offered to the Court and the Judges than the present. It was such an insult that he could not find words adequately to describe. In the end, it was agreed that the interrogatories were regularly filed, and that Mr. Shaw should answer them.

After the report of this short debate appeared in 'The Gazette' of the 11th of August, Mr. Fair received a letter from the Chief Secretary, stating that the Governor in Council had been informed (by Sir C. Chambers,) that the report was a gross misrepresentation of what had been said by the Judge; and that by noticing his personal demeanour, distorting some things and suppressing others,

it tended to give a false impression of his conduct, and to lower the Court in the public estimation. For this defective and erroneous report, Mr. Fair was required to make a public apology; no clear statement of a single error was communicated to him; no report of what the Judge had professed to have said, and which might have been contrasted with that in 'The Bombay Gazette,' was ever published; no inquiry was gone into as to the correctness of Mr. Fair's report; the general assertions of the offended Judge were held to be conclusive; the draft of an apology tendered by Mr. Fair was rejected, because it contained no confession of a deviation from truth in the report complained of; and he was, on the 6th September, 1824, conveyed on board the ship *London*, bound for England, by the circuitous route of Calcutta and China!

In this case there is every circumstance of aggravation, whether we regard the conduct of the Governor, or of the two Judges. One of the Calcutta Judges, Sir F. Macnaghten, said, in the case of Mr. Arnot, on the 19th of September, 1823, that if the Judges of the Supreme Court were ever swayed by respect of persons, and truckled to Government, he would wish to see the Court abolished as a nuisance. In the case of Mr. Fair, the Judges were not assenting but instigating to violence; not wrestling the law in support of public authority, but procuring the condemnation of an individual for an imaginary personal injury, which, under no form of law, could have incurred the smallest penalty. The Governor rather truckled to them, and undertook to execute the tyrannous suggestions which they extra-judicially communicated to him! Assuming the vague and angry assertions of a man judging in his own cause to be conclusive, he flung into banishment, poverty, and the perils of a tedious voyage, one whose sole offence was his refusal to be guilty of prevarication and falsehood!

THE INVASION OF RUSSIA, BY NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE.

[A Poem, which obtained the Chancellor's Medal at the Cambridge Commencement, 1828, by Christopher Wordsworth, Scholar of Trinity College.]

Γελαῖ δὲ θαλάσῳ ἐν' ἀνδρῶν θερμῷ,
Τὸν αἶψα τοῦ ἀνδρὸς ἰδὼν ἀμνηστὸς
Δύσας ἀπαβύθην, οὐδ' ὑπερβίοντ' ἄκραν.

ÆSCHYL. *Eum.* 530.

RIDE, boldly ride! for thee the vernal gale
Breathes life and fragrance o'er the teeming vale;
For thee the Seine, for thee the glassy bay
Laughs in a revelry of golden day;
And o'er the wave the mantling vineyards throw
Their purple fruits, that in the mirrow glow:
Heaven lives and beams for thee: then boldly ride,
Pageant of Gaul, and fair Italia's pride!
Proudly thy eagle soars, thy banners stream
In crimson folds, that mock the Sun's pale beam.
Proudly thy coursers neigh, and pant to tread
Muscovia's dust, and spurn the slumbering dead.
'I hear* a voice—it cried—'To arms! advance!—
I see the star of Austerlitz and France.'

'Speed!' They have sped, murmuring o'er hill and plain,
Like the far murmur of the sleepless main—
Wave after wave, a flood of silver light:
Oh! that so fair a day shall soon be plung'd in night!

Awake! ye Spirits—if on Niemen's shore
Ye sleep, or listen to the midnight roar
Of tumbling cataracts,—if ye love to play
On the white foam, and course the dashing spray—
I call ye now—on yon grey steep arise,
And wake the slumbering legions of the skies;
Shout to the tardy winds and stagnant air,
And rouse the vengeful thunder from his lair!
Proclaim to him, who vaunts that none shall stay
His arm, outstretched, omnipotent to slay,
Proclaim,—that pale Disease, the withering form
Of Desolation, and the sweeping storm,
They quail not, shrink not, from the haughty foe—
They have encamped, and they will overthrow!—

* Segur I., p. 68. 'Do you see that Star above us?' p. 73. 'Who calls me?' p. 109. 'Are we not the soldiers of Austerlitz?' these are the words of Napoleon. Of his belief in his fortunate Star, see Porter's Campaign, p. 332.

Slowly and darkly o'er the pine-tree groves
 The brooding mass of devastation moves ;*
 It moves, it comes ! from skies convulsed and riven
 The tempest leaps, the artillery of heaven
 Peals from the clouds, the arrowy lightning's gleam
 Glares on the snows, and gilds the livid stream :
 The thunder growls around, and wildly sings
 Of banquets soon to be, with sullen mutterings.

Dost thou, proud chief, the voice of anguish hear,
 And drop, when others weep, thy pitying tear ?
 Ah ! no—thou must not weep ! but calmly see
 Eyes glazed in death, grow dim, and die on thee ;
 And smile where others smile not ; sights forlorn
 Must be but dreams ; and bursting hearts thy scorn !
 Ah ! can'st thou hear that faint and stifled cry,
 And mock a dying father's agony ?
 Ten thousand fathers there in silence sleep,
 Around their bier no wife, no children weep ;
 The Vulture screams, the Eagle hovers nigh,
 Flaps its dark wing, and wheels around the sky.
 By moaning gusts their requiems are sung,
 Their's is the storm's wild howl, the thunder's tongue ;
 Their shroud, yon leaden sea of floating gloom,
 Yon white and heaving mounds their only tomb !
 Ten thousand widows there beside thee tread,
 Ten thousand orphans wail around thy bed :—
 Can'st thou thus slay, and sleep ?—Then hie thee on !
 By orphans' tears thy festivals are won—
 Burn, vanquish, spoil !—but ah ! thy start is dim !
 For One—the mighty God—thou can'st not vanquish Him !

He saw the scarlet banner wildly spread
 O'er yon black waste, the city of the dead ;
 He saw the victor ride in gorgeous state,
 Through fair Smolensko, houseless, desolate ;
 And smile amid the dust and matted gore,†
 The formless wreck of what was man no more.
 He hears the triumph's peal, that frantic cry,
 By winds, his heralds, wafted to the sky—
 Great God of Vengeance ! Not to Thee they raise
 The anthem's voice, the chanted hymn of praise :

* Segur I., p. 119. The Emperor had scarcely passed over the river, (Niemen,) when a rumbling sound began to agitate the air. This was conceived to be a fatal presage.

† See the first Note.

‡ Segur I., pp. 227—233, speaks of 'heaps of smoking ashes, where lay human skeletons dried and blackened by the fire.'

Havoc to them is dearer than thy heaven ;
Their hallelujahs are to Carnage given !

The spires * of Moscow glittering from afar
In the pale lustre of yon silver star,
Her steel-clad bastions, and embattled walls,
Her domes, her fanes, and gold-bespangled halls,
No more the minstrel's midnight music hear,
No vocal strains her silent gardens cheer :—
Save where yon holy quire † in pure array,
Through the grey portal treads its lonely way :
They with soft notes, that sigh upon the gale,
Wake the sad echoes of the sleeping vale ;
Breathing, fair city, in a dirge to thee,
Their sweetest, calmest, holiest melody ;
And cast, as o'er the mountain's brow they wind,
A mournful glance, a long last look behind.

'Tis past, for ever—see ! aloft they fly,
Yon smouldering flakes upfloating to the sky ;—
Till the moon fades beneath the lurid stream,
Blotted from heaven, or shoots a ghastly beam.—
As some fond mourner, with averted ‡ eyes,
Kindles the pile on which a parent lies ;
Thy children, Moscow, rear thy funeral pyre,
Plant the red torch, and fan the pious fire.—
For wilt thou, wilt thou thy Destroyer greet,
Drest with the garlands of thy own defeat ?
Or bid thy vaulted domes with loud acclaim
Attune their echoes to a Tyrant's name ;
Or see by feet unblest thy temples trod,
And blood-red eagles wav'd above the shrine of God ?
Thou wilt not ! Therefore with glad eyes I see
The golden flame—the flame that sets thee free !
Thy fretted aisles, thy burnish'd columns bow ;
Rejoice, rejoice ! thou art triumphant now.
There, there ! from street to street, with dreary roar,
Their yellow tide the rampant billows pour,
And whirl'd by winds that sweep tempestuous by,
Point their red spires, and sail along the sky.

Tyrant of Earth ! what art thou ? not to thee
Crouch the proud surges of yon lurid sea—

* Moscow was called the City of the Golden Spires—its houses were covered with polished iron.

† Segur ii., p. 17. Their priest headed the procession : turning their eyes once more towards Moscow, they seemed to be bidding a last farewell to their holy city.

‡ Virg. Aversi tenuere facem,
Oriental Herald, Vol. 18.

In vain on Kremlin's height with pallid stare
 I see thee scowl above the flames' red glare,
 And bid them make thee partner of their joy,
 And leave thee something,—something to destroy.
 These smoking piles—is this thy conquering reign?
 Those voiceless streets, that desolated plain?
 Thy throne,—yon scarr'd and solitary tower,
 Rock'd by the winds, and channell'd by the shower?
 Thy train,—shall they thy splendid deeds declare
 With their wan lips, and bless thee for despair?
 Go! hunt the clouds, and shout it to the gale,
 And let the night winds learn the vaunted tale!
 Go! bid the sky with acclamations ring,
 And bellowing storms thy boasted conquest sing!
 Tell of the feats thy own right hand has done,
 Unblest of God,—thy own right hand alone!
 Proclaim,—that thou, with unrelenting eye,
 Could'st boldly see thy legions faint and die;
 Could'st o'er yon waste thy grasping reign advance,
 And buy a desert with the blood of France!—
 No marble here thy blazon'd name shall bear,
 Nor storied wall thy streaming trophies wear;
 No deluged streets shall feast thy thirsting ken
 With one vast death, with hecatombs of men!
 Though Russia curse thee, Gaul shall curse thee more—
 That crimson flood, it was thy country's gore!
 Ah! can'st thou yon forsaken suppliants * see
 Extend their mute, their pallid hands to thee?
 Creep to the gate, and in the portal stand
 Of yon dark house of woe, a ghastly band?—
 For thee, they left soft Gallia's fragrant gales,
 Their own dear hill, their own domestic vales,
 For thee!—they trod for thee Muscovia's wild
 And withering wastes, where summer never smil'd,
 And blackening woods, where sighs the waving pine,—
 And, that their eyes thus wildly glare, 'tis thine!—
 —Yet he did calmly pass without a sigh,
 And when for France they ask'd him, bade them die!
 But thou, † whose breast with holier ardour fed,
 Glow'd for thy country, for thy country bled—
 I hail thee, Patriot! and with Moscow's flame
 Will write the glories of thy deathless name.

* Segur ii, p. 131. 'When they (the sick in the hospitale) saw the army repossess, and that they were about to be left behind, the least infirm crawled to the threshold, and extended towards us their supplicating hands'

† Count Rostopchin—by whose advice Moscow was set on fire by the Russians.

Patriot ! whose dauntless soul could brook to see
 Moscow in ashes laid, or Moscow free ;—
 Enslaved,—it could not brook—for who would dwell
 A splendid captive in a painted cell ?
 Better in dungeons and in gloom to pine,
 Than feast in halls which were, and are not thine !
 What boots the branching roof, the pillar's mould,
 The foliated shaft, the cornice dipp'd in gold,
 If prostrate man a Tyrant's rod adore,
 And crouch a menial, where he reign'd before ?
 Then, who exults not ? though the fitful breeze
 Sigh o'er thy rifted pier, and crumbling frieze,
 Desolate Moscow !—for around thy grave
 Stern virtue rears her freshest architrave,
 And faith and patriot love with lock'd embrace
 Entwine their arms, and guard the silent place.
 Pale memory twines a cypress wreath for thee,
 Clasps thy cold urn, the ashes of the free,—
 And Granta bids her youthful bards relate
 How bright in life thou wert, in death how great !
 'Though guardian heav'n has made, with kindlier care,
 Her sons as free as thine, herself more fair,
 She mourns thee ! though her new-born columns shine,
 To hail her Patriot Prince more blest than thine ;
 'Though vernal flow'rs her happier muses bring,
 And grace his fostering hand who bade them sing !
Pale, palsied winter ! thus, by tepid gales
 Arcadian faun'd and nurs'd in roseate vales,
 Or dreaming else in those Hesperian isles
 Bathed in pure light 'mid spring's perennial smiles—
 Thus bards have named thee,—but that feeble name
 Thou, mighty winter, proudly wilt disclaim
 Though slumbering 'neath the cloud-pavilion'd throne
 Of Him who never sleeps in chambers lone,—
 Where the strong earthquakes his archangels are—
 Where the blue lightnings wave their torch-like hair—
 Thou, yet unseen, unheard, hast whiled away
 The spring's soft hours, the summer's tranquil day ;
 Thy sleep is slept !—no listless dreamer now,
 A warrior armed, a dauntless rider thou !
 A mighty hunter !—there I see thee leap
 From torrent's shore to shore, from steep to steep :
 Are not thy footsteps o'er the pathless sea ?
 The streams, thy coursers, bend their necks to thee !
 I see thee there with chrystal bands enthrall
 The dash of waves, and curb the waterfall !

Ha ! hast thou found them ?—there thy victims lie
 Crouching and shrinking from the starless sky.

Round the pale flame that flickers in the snow *
 Their blighted cheeks with ghastly lustre glow :
 And some there are who stand in silence by,
 Or breathe a prayer, and then lie down to die :
 Or cower in circles o'er their grave of snow,
 Shrouding their brows in dark unutterable woe :
 And some who laugh with parch'd and tearless glare,
 A joyless laugh, and revel in despair ;
 And one, whose heart is basking in the gleam
 Of a far land—the sunshine of a dream !
 Where the light trembles in the quivering shade
 Of some green orchard or dark olive glade ;
 Where clustering roses veil his own retreat,
 And ivy mantles o'er the doorway seat :
 And her fair form before his feverish sight
 Glides, like a voiceless phantom of the night ;
 That angel form he never more must see,
 Save in the visions of eternity.—
 Ah ! what will now those purple spoils avail,
 Stretch'd on the snows and scatter'd to the gale ?
 No earthly form to-morrow's sun shall find,
 Save the white waste, no whisper but the wind !

He comes ! he comes ! ye Gallic virgins, twine
 The myrtle wreath, and weave the eglantine—
 For him who rides in gorgeous pomp along,
 Strew, strew the rose, and chaunt the choral song.
 For him, whose car has thunder'd o'er the plains,
 Fettered by frost in adamantine chains.
 Ah ! no—he comes not thus ! no gladsome cry
 Shall shout his name, and hurl it to the sky ;
 No grateful crowds before his eagles bend,
 No laurell'd hosts his chariot-wheels attend :
 For him no mothers' lips shall softly pray,
 No hands be clasped to bless him on his way :
 His heralds silence and the nights shall be,—
 A country's curse, his song of victory !

Therefore, to winter's God the nations raise
 A holy concert of symphonious praise,—
 For Thou hast spoiled the spoiler : Thou hast bowed
 The scorner's strength, the threatenings of the proud !
 Thee, their dread Champion ! Thee, the Caspian shore,
 Dark Volga's flood, and Niemen's storms adore :
 Thee, the glad Tanais, Thee, the thundering voice
 Of Ister ; the Cantabrian depths rejoice ;
 Fair Tagus hears, and Alva's echoing caves
 Wake the soft music of his amber waves :
 And the great earth, and everlasting sea,
 To Thee their anthems pour, dread Lord of Hosts, to Thee !

MISS WRIGHT'S ESTABLISHMENT IN AMERICA.

HAVING accidentally been put in possession of a collection of the singular documents connected with the proceedings of this singular lady, who is now effecting such changes in the western world, we think we could scarcely offer any thing more *curious*, at least, to our readers in the eastern world. The plans and opinions of Miss Wright are so peculiar, that it is impossible to regard them with indifference. Let our readers, however, judge of them for themselves. We shall be content with placing them on record, preceded by the original letter of the lady herself, addressed to a Member of the British Parliament, and which precedes the collection of documents to which it refers.

LETTER.

To ——— M. P.

Nashoba, April 9, 1828.

‘I ENCLOSE to you, my dear Sir, three papers, explanatory of the views which have made me an inhabitant of these distant forests. In the circular address which may have already reached you, you will see the plan of our first proceedings; and, in the communication from the Nashoba trustees, the modification of the original plan as necessitated by the circumstances there detailed. You will see, from a perusal of the articles, why I am particularly desirous that my first address, as written at sea, should only appear in company with the subsequent communication from the Nashoba trustees.

‘The spirit of inquiry is growing bold in this country. Superstition is not a plant suited to the American soil, and must, ere long, disappear entirely. That it may die out in every soil, and give place to matter of fact and truth, is, I know, your prayer, my dear Sir, equally with my own.

‘With my very highest respect,

‘FRANCES WRIGHT.’

Deed of the Lands of Nashoba, West Tennessee, by Frances Wright.

‘I, FRANCES WRIGHT, do give the lands after specified to General Lafayette, William Maclure, Robert Owen, Cadwallader Colden, Richeeson Whitby, Robert Jennings, Robert Dale Owen, George Flower, Camilla Wright, and James Richardson, to be held by them, and their associates, and their successor in perpetual trust, for the benefit of the negro race.

‘The object of this trust, in its particular modes, I confide to the discretion of the trustees; provided that a school for coloured

children shall always form a principal part of the plan : and provided further, that all negroes, emancipated by the trustees, shall, on quitting the lands of the institution, be placed out of the limits of the United States. .

‘The trustees residing on the lands of the institution, provided their number be not less than three, shall constitute a quorum competent to transact business.

‘On all matters, except those of the nomination of trustees and coadjutors, and of the admission of young persons aged from 14 to 20, the vote of a majority of the quorum of trustees shall decide.

‘For the protection of absent and dissentient trustees,—no trustee shall be bound by any contract, to which he has not subscribed his name.

‘The trustees shall have power to fill the vacancies that may occur in their number, and to increase that number ; provided that each nomination shall have the unanimous consent of the trustees, or of their quorum : and provided that the person nominated shall have, previous to nomination, resided at least six months on the lands of the institution ; so that, by such residence, a thorough knowledge may have been gained of his or her character.

‘The trustees shall not permit their numbers to be, at any time, less than five.

‘The trustees shall have power to admit other persons as their coadjutors ; provided that each such admission shall have the unanimous consent of the trustees, or of their quorum ; and provided that each person, so admitted, shall have, previous to admission, resided, during at least six months, on the lands of the institution ; so that, by such residence, a thorough knowledge may have been gained of his or her character.

‘Such coadjutors shall enjoy every privilege of the institution, except that of trust or management.

‘To secure the complete independence of all who may join the institution, no one admitted either as trustee, or as coadjutor, shall be liable, for any reason, to expulsion ; but from the moment of admission, each person shall have an indefeasible right to the enjoyment of the comforts afforded by the institution ; that is, to food, to clothing, to lodging, to attention during sickness, and to protection in old age.

‘No member, whether trustee or coadjutor, who may quit the institution, shall be entitled to any compensation for past services, in addition to the participation he will have had in the comforts of the institution while residing in it.

‘In the admission of members, whether as trustees or as coadjutors, the admission of a husband shall not carry along with it as a consequence the admission of his wife ; nor the admission of a wife the admission of her husband ; nor the admission of parents,

the admission of those of their children who may be above fourteen years of age: each admission shall, like my own original nomination of trustees, be strictly individual, except that of children under fourteen years of age, whose admission shall be a consequence of the admission of either of their parents.

'The children, under fourteen years of age, of all the members, whether trustees or coadjutors, shall be raised and educated by the institution, until they are, respectively, twenty years of age: when they shall, at the discretion of the trustees, be either admitted as members of this institution, or assisted in forming themselves elsewhere into a community.

'Should any child, who has been admitted in consequence of the admission of either of his parents, be removed by either of his parents from the school of the institution, for a longer period than six months, without the consent of a majority of the teachers, such child shall forfeit all claim on the institution.

'Young persons, from fourteen to twenty years of age, may be admitted individually; provided such admission be after a residence of at least three months on the lands of the institution, and by the unanimous consent of the trustees or of their quorum; and, when so admitted, such young persons shall have all the privileges of children under fourteen, and no more; and they shall, like children under fourteen, forfeit all claim on the institution by absence from the school, for more than six months, without the consent of a majority of the teachers.

'On the fourth day of July, eighteen hundred and seventy-six, the trust shall devolve on the then existing trustees and coadjutors, jointly, and thenceforward, every member shall be a trustee.'

'Notwithstanding the legal inconsistency which such a reservation may seem to involve, I do reserve to myself all the privileges of a trustee.

'The lands of Nashoba, which I give in trust, amount in the aggregate to about 1860 acres; lie on both sides of 'Wolf River' Shelby County, state of Tennessee; and are specifically as follows:

[Here is inserted a technical description of the Lands.]

(Signed)

'FRANCES WRIGHT.'

'I, Frances Wright, do give to General Lafayette, William Maclure, Robert Owen, Cadwallader Colden, Richeeson Whitby, Robert Jennings, Robert Dale Owen, George Flower, Camilla Wright, and James Richardson, trustees of the lands of Nashoba, the slaves Willis, Jacob, Grandison, Redick, Henry, Nelly, Peggy, and Kitty, with her male infant: on condition that, when their labour, together with the labour of the family after-mentioned, shall have paid, to the institution of Nashoba, a clear capital of 60000ds., with 6 per cent. interest on that capital, from the 1st of January,

1827 ; and also a sum sufficient to defray the expenses of colonisation,—these slaves shall be emancipated and colonised by the trustees.

‘It is, however, the intention of this paper, that the male child of Kitty, as well as all the children, which she, and Peggy, and Nelly may bear, previous to their emancipation, shall be the property of the trustees, till they respectively attain the age of twenty-five years, when they shall be emancipated by, and colonised at, the expense of the trustees.

‘Further, in consideration of the implicit confidence which I have in these trustees, I consign to their care the family of female slaves, entrusted to me by Robert Wilson, of South Carolina ; on condition that the trustees assume all the responsibilities relative to that family which I came under, and which, notwithstanding this paper, I continue under, to their former owner, Robert Wilson : and on the additional condition, that, should the labour of this family, together with the labour of the slaves above-mentioned, have paid, to the institution of Nashoba, the sums before-mentioned, at an earlier date than that at which I am bound to emancipate and colonise them, the trustees shall, at that earlier date, emancipate and colonise the family, and their issue.

‘To the above-mentioned capital sum of 6000ds., with its interest, I renounce all claim, as well for myself as for my heirs, executors, and successors of every denomination, in favour of the trustees of the lands of Nashoba.

‘Witness my hand and seal, &c.

‘FRANCES WRIGHT.’

I, Frances Wright, do give to General Lafayette, William Mac-lure, Robert Owen, Cadwallader Colden, Richeeson Whitby, Robert Jennings, Robert Dale Owen, George Flower, Camilla Wright, and James Richardson, trustees of the lands of Nashoba, all my personal property that is now on these lands.

‘Witness my hand, &c.

‘FRANCES WRIGHT.’

‘In attempting an institution in the United States, for the benefit of the negro race, I was fully aware that much assistance would be necessary, before any thing of importance could be effected.

‘To secure a title to this assistance, I have ever felt it requisite that some guarantee should be given to the public, not merely for the sincerity of my intentions, but for my probable chance of success.

‘The mode that most naturally presents itself, on the first view of the subject, is to place the institution, by some legal arrangement, under the management of some public body ; and to appoint trustees, subject to the control of that body. The objections to this mode are, I conceive, substantial. There is no public body, with which I am acquainted, that is not, and must not of necessity be, by the political constitutions of the country, a representative of

the feelings of a majority of the nation. In these feelings, as regards the object I have in view, the benefit of the negro race, no reflecting individual can or ought to repose confidence. Every part of the United States feels, more or less, the contamination of slavery. The negro race is every where, more or less, held, by a great majority of the population, in contempt and suspicion. Its very colour is an object of disgust. And in the speeches and votes of Congress, we find an evidence, that the most northern sections of the country harbour prejudices, equal in strength to those of the extreme south.

‘Next to the national securities, apparently offered by the legislatures and official characters of the states, some more private associations or bodies seem to present themselves, such as the emancipation and colonisation of societies. In the former of these, I could alone suppose any real sympathy of feeling; as, however excellent the intentions of many members of the colonisation societies, I cannot but consider the essence of the institution to be favourable to slavery; as tending rather to relieve the slaveholders from some of those inconveniences which might force them to abandon their system,—than to effect a change in that system itself. The names of many of the Presidents and Directors of these societies, will sufficiently bear testimony to the justice of this observation.

‘In the members of the emancipating societies, I acknowledge with pleasure the real friends of the liberty of man; and my only reason for not placing this property in some way or other, under their control is, that I conceive their views, respecting the moral instruction of human beings, to differ essentially from my own. This moral instruction I hold to be of even greater importance than the simple enfranchisement from bodily slavery: inasmuch as the liberty of the mind, and the just training of the thoughts and feelings, can alone constitute a free man, and a useful member of society.

‘My inquiries and observations have led me to believe, that the benevolence of the societies alluded to is based on, or connected with, peculiar tenets of religion; and that the management of any individuals, who should not take these for their guide, would naturally be disapproved, and probably interrupted.

‘Let nothing unfriendly be found in these observations. I respect and esteem the intentions of the societies spoken of, and only differ from them in opinion. This difference of opinion, however, we both agree in considering of the first importance.

‘There being, thus, two objects to be attained, the giving some guarantee to the public, that the institution will not be perverted to the private interest of any individual,—and the possessing some security for myself and friends, that such guarantee will not endanger our ultimate views of moral regeneration,—it has been felt necessary to have recourse to sureties of a still more private nature, which alone seem to embrace the desired objects. Let us place trust and

responsibility where we will, we must still place it in men ; and our security must ever principally rest on a belief in their integrity, and a knowledge of their feelings and opinions. In consequence, I have made choice of a certain number of individuals, in whom, and failing them, in others, chosen as before-mentioned, the possession and management of this property, in trust for a certain object, is vested.

‘I am fully aware that, by this expression of sentiments, different from those commonly received in the world, the institution will forfeit much assistance which it might otherwise obtain. But I hold a plain expression of opinion to be not only a right, but a duty ; and that, in the exercise of this duty, every individual not only best consults his own dignity, but renders the most important of all services to mankind.

‘Emancipation, based on religion, has hitherto effected but little ; and, generally speaking, has, by the tone and arguments employed, tended rather to irritate than convince.

‘In facing the subject of slavery, it is necessary to bear in mind the position of the master, equally with that of the slave. Bred in the prejudices of colour and authority, untaught to labour, and viewing it as a degradation, we should consider that what we view, at first sight, as a peculiar vice and injustice in the planter, is not more so, in fact, than any other vice and injustice, stamped by education on the minds and hearts of other men. We must come to the slaveholder, therefore, not in anger, but in kindness ; and when we ask him to change his whole mode of life, we must show him the means by which we may do so, without the complete compromise of his ease and of his interests. There are comparatively few holders of slaves, who will not admit in argument the worst evils of the system, more particularly the idleness, violent passions, and profligacy, it but too generally fixes on their children. But, they will say, what can we do ? we are unfit for labour, and are dependent for our very subsistence on the labour of the negro.

‘Let us then propose to unite their property, to pursue such occupations as their previous habits may bend to, and to continue to impose the harder tasks of labour, during their lives or necessities, upon the present generation of slaves ; conferring such an education on the children of their slaves, as shall fit them for the station of a free people. Let them, at the same time, train their own children in the habits worthy of free men ; rendering them independent of the labour of others, by a complete and practical education, that shall strengthen the body equally with the mind, render just and amiable the opinions and feelings, and introduce at once, in a new generation, that complete equality of habits and knowledge, alone consistent with the political institutions of the country. ●

‘In this place, the trustees will be found ready to enter into such terms with the owners of slaves, as shall forward the objects above

specified. It must be understood, however, that there is no invitation to the slaveholder in feeling and obstinate habit. None can be received who do not come with the feeling of good will to all men; and who, regretting the prejudices of their own education, shall not desire, for their children, one of a completely opposite character. No difference will be made in the schools between the white children and the children of colour, whether in education or any other advantage.

‘What degree of assistance this infant institution may receive, must depend on the amount of sympathy, scattered throughout the world, with the views and feelings expressed in this paper.

‘To those acknowledging such sympathy, the paper is addressed. Those who have money, or other property, will bring it; they who have only their arms or their heads will bring them.

‘To secure this assistance cheerfully and lastingly, it is necessary that the independence of every individual should be secured beyond the possibility of interruption. Without such security, human exertions must be feeble, and human happiness incomplete. Perfect independence, and entire exemption from all anxiety respecting the future, both as regards the parents themselves, and their children, it is one of the objects of this deed to insure.

‘Therefore it is, that so many difficulties are thrown in the way of the admission of members. Were a system of prevention followed, instead of punishment, laws would be unnecessary. And in all the transactions of life, the only effective precautions seem to be those which provide against the occurrences of evil, not those which attempt provisions for remedying the evil when it has occurred.

‘It will be seen that this establishment is founded on the principle of community of property and labour; presenting every advantage to those desirous, not of accumulating money, but of enjoying life, and rendering services to their fellow-creatures; these fellow-creatures, that is the blacks here admitted, requiting these services by services equal or greater, by filling occupations which their habits render easy, and which, to their guides and assistants, might be difficult or unpleasing. No life of idleness, however, is proposed to the whites. Those who cannot work, must give an equivalent in property. Gardening or other cultivation of the soil; useful trades practised in the society, or taught in the school; the teaching of every branch of knowledge; tending the children; and nursing the sick—will present a choice of employments sufficiently extensive.

‘Labour is wealth: its reward should be enjoyment. Those who feel and admit this truth, will see that it needs not to be rich, in the now received sense of the word, to contribute towards the building up of an institution, which, however small in its infancy, may be made, with their co-operation, to open the way to a great national reform. Deeds are better than words. After all that has been said.

let something be at least attempted. An experiment that has such an end in view, is surely worth the trial.

'To the friends of man and their country; to the respecters of the institutions of this republic; to all imbued with liberal principles; to all who wish, and believe in the possibility of the improvement of man; to all, in short, who sympathise in the sentiments expressed in this paper,—this appeal is made. Let us, then, come forward; let us dare to express our feelings, and to act in accordance with them. Let us view, in a spirit of kindness, the prejudices, as well as the misfortunes, of our fellow-beings; remembering that prejudice is not a crime, but an evil entailed by education, and strengthened by habit.

'Witness my hand and seal, this 17th of December, 1826.

'FRANCES WRIGHT.'

Communication from the Trustees of Nashoba.

THE experiment by the Trustees of the Nashoba to form a community of equality and of common property is one of many experiments which have been lately made in different parts of the United States with a similar object. The trustees have encountered, as probably all pioneers in the co-operative system will encounter, many difficulties. These were for the most part incidental to the experiment as attempted by a generation trained and circumstanced as is the present generation of men, not inherent in the system itself. They were modified, in the present instance, by the peculiar nature of this trust for the benefit of the negro race; and they have produced, after the experience of two years, a modification of the plan originally adopted and since published by Frances Wright. This modification, caused by the habits of the present generation, and applying in its practice solely to them, it is the object of the following communication to explain.

In a co-operative community, when perfectly organized, the simple relation between the society and the individual is, that the latter devotes his time and his labour for the public good in any way the public voice may enjoin, while the society supports each individual member. This relation presupposes in the members the physical strength and the practical skill necessary to render their labour an equivalent for that which the community expends to support them.

Besides these physical requisites, each member in a society of which mutual kindness is the bond, sincerity and liberality the ground-work, and harmony of feeling the characteristic, must possess mental, and, above all, moral requisites of high order. Let no one deceive himself; if there be introduced into such a society thoughts of evil and unkindness, feelings of intolerance and words of dissention, it cannot prosper. That which produces in the world only common-place jealousies and every-day squabbles, is sufficient to destroy a social community.

In the outset of their labours the Trustees perceived, that it would be a very difficult matter to find men and women with all the qualifications, as well mental and moral as physical, which are indispensable to the success of the experiment in its purest form. Many of the individuals who were the best calculated *mentally* and *morally* for the good work, wanted physical force and practical knowledge; and many more who possessed the hands wanted the head and the heart. To meet this difficulty they agreed, that where the mental and moral qualifications existed, they would receive, instead of labour, a certain sum of money yearly; which, as society is at present organized, is an equivalent for labour. Other members, having no capital, they agreed to admit where the physical requisites accompanied the mental and the moral.

The society thus assumed a mixed form. It admitted some members to labour, and others as boarders from whom no labour was required. Now, the experience of the Trustees has proved to them, that they erred in so doing. The arrangement they made introduces, in spite of the best and most charitable feelings, a sense of inequality among the members which may not without injury be created and felt.

It became necessary, therefore, either that physical labour should be required *from all*, or that it should be required from *none*; in other words, either that the society assume the form of a simple co-operative society, or else of a society composed of small capitalists, of whom each should furnish a certain sum of money yearly for his or her support.

Convinced that one of these modifications was necessary for the present generation of human beings, half-trained as they are, the Trustees have determined to adopt the latter, and to receive those members only who possess the funds necessary for their support. They were influenced in their decision by a conviction, that they themselves and the friends they know best and trust most possess not the physical requisites as co-operatives; perceiving, as they did, that several of them had lost their health by attempting exertions for which their previous deficient physical training had disqualified them. Leaving, therefore, to others better qualified for the task, the attempt to become independent as all men ought to be, by their own labour, they have agreed for themselves and the associates who may join them, to adopt the other less rational, but for them more practical plan. Deeply sensible, however, how imperfect the experiment and how much they themselves have lost by the ignorance of their ancestors, they will train their children to be physically independent of money; and they hope in the next generation to dispense altogether with an artificial aid, which their weakness and want of skill alone render necessary to them.

The Trustees have been confirmed in the resolution they have thus adopted by observing the difficulty of first commencing a co-

operative society with a very small number ; while, according to the present plan, a small number can live in comfort and prosper, even if it should so happen that they receive no additions to their number. The small number of probationers who had joined the Trustees under the former plan, have since voluntarily left the establishment, so that the Trustees are at liberty, without injury to any one, to act as they now do.

The Trustees desire to express distinctly *that they have deferred for the present the attempt to form a society of co-operative labour, and they claim for their association only the title of a preliminary SOCIAL COMMUNITY.*

The Trustees propose, that this Community be composed of those whose mental and moral characters mark them as fit members, without reference to physical skill and efficiency, and without regard to colour ; and that each throw into the common fund yearly one hundred dollars, as board alone, paid quarterly in advance : this fund to be managed as the public voice shall direct. And they propose that every other expense be defrayed individually, according to the desires and habits of each member.

They farther propose that each member build himself or herself a small brick house, with a broad piazza ; each house containing one room, perhaps 15 feet by 17, and 10 feet high, with a closet and presses ; these rooms or small houses to be built according to a regular plan, probably in the form of a square or parallelogram, upon a spot of cleared ground which has been selected for that purpose, near the centre of the lands of Nashoba. Each member's room to be furnished and filled up at the expense and according to the taste of the owner.

It is further proposed, that as soon as the funds can be commanded, a school shall be erected for the children of the establishment ; and for the reception, afterwards, of other children from individual society ; to be received, without regard to colour, at a fixed board.

It is estimated that the first cost of each room or house, when completed and plainly furnished, will be about 500ds. ; and that the total yearly expenses of each member will not, with proper economy, exceed 200ds. This sum includes board and every other expense, except house-rent ; which, if each member build his own house, will not form an item in his yearly expenditure.

The Trustees think it necessary to state, that under the plan which they have just adopted, they retain, and remain alone responsible for, the management of the slaves now on the place, and the care of enabling them to emancipate themselves, as they are now gradually doing, by their own labour ; also to prosecute the other objects of the trust. The associates who may join them do not become Trustees, and have no voice in the management of the

slaves or of the trust, unless they should be expressly elected to be Trustees. Thus the Social Community and the trust of Nashoba are two separate concerns; which, though they may, and it is hoped must, materially assist each other, have no necessary or indispensable connection. The Trustees, in placing themselves, as members of the Social Community, exactly upon the same footing as every other associate, now decline availing themselves of the right which the deed of trust gives them, to food, clothing, and other necessaries, from the funds of the trust. They will, like the other associates, support themselves from their own private funds.

‘Dated at Nashoba, 1st February, 1828.

(Signed)	FRANCES WRIGHT, RICHEYSON WHITBY, CAMILLA WRIGHT WHITBEY, ROBERT DALE OWEN	} Resident Trustees.
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NASHOBA.

‘Foresceing the probable unpopularity of the principles set forth in the following Address, I feel it to be consistent with the spirit of candour, which I desire should ever guide my actions, writings, and conversations, and moreover, a due attention to the feelings, and, perhaps, the interests of my personal friends, to observe, that no individual can be considered as pledged to the opinions herein explained, and openly and conscientiously professed, but the resident Trustees of Nashoba. In my deed of trust, I included the names of some individuals from a personal feeling of respect and affection, and from the sympathy I knew to exist between them and myself on the broad question of Negro slavery, and on the general principles of human improvement, and the political liberty of men and nations.

‘The deed being also dictated under the pressure of sickness, induced by over-exertion, physical and mental, and which, at the time, threatened to prove mortal, I was desirous of leaving to them a last testimony of personal regard and confidence. But it has since occurred to me, that the appearance of their names in the deed of trust, may be viewed as pledging them to all the principles which that deed involves, and which the following address is intended to explain, while their personal friendship for myself might inspire some delicacy in expressing their dissent from the same. I would allude here more particularly to two individuals, the one professing a public reputation in his own country, the United States; and the other a public character in all countries. Let me therefore state, and this without previously consulting them on the subject, that I have no ground whatever to presume their assent to the moral principles and peculiar views now exposed to the public; the responsibility of which I take singly and entirely on myself. And the statement here made with respect to my personal friends, I would in like manner apply to all editors of journals, magazines, reviews, or other periodi-

cal works, in whatever country or language, who may comply with the request herein preferred to them, of inserting this Address in their pages. And this request I conceive may scarcely be refused by any professing to favour the spirit of human inquiry, and disinterested efforts, whether judicious or erroneous, made in the cause of human improvement.

‘FRANCES WRIGHT.’

At Sea, Dec. 4, 1827.

Explanatory Notes, respecting the nature and object of the Institution, and of the principles upon which it is founded; addressed to the friends of human improvement in all Countries, and in all Nations. The Editors and Conductors of all periodical publications, in whatever Language, are requested to assist in the circulation of this Address by giving it insertion in their pages.

‘THIS institution was founded in the autumn of 1825, in the western district of the state of Tennessee, North America, by Frances Wright.

‘The object of the founder was to attempt the practice of certain principles which, in theory, had been frequently practised. She had observed that the step between theory and practice is usually great; that while many could reason, few were prepared to proceed to act; and that mankind must reasonably hesitate to receive as truths theories, however ingenious, if unsupported by experiment. In the individual who should first attempt an experiment opposed to all existing opinions and practice, she believed two moral requisites to be indispensable, mental courage, and, as some writer has defined it, a passion for the improvement of the human race. She felt within herself these necessary qualifications; and, strongly convinced of the truth of the principles which, after mature consideration, her heart and head had embraced, she determined to apply all her energies, and to devote her slender fortune, to the building up of an institution which should have these principles for its base, and whose destinies she fondly hoped might tend to convince mankind of their moral beauty and practical utility. Actuated from her earliest youth by a passionate interest in the welfare of man, she had peculiarly addressed herself to the study of his past and present condition. All her observations tended to corroborate the opinion which her own feelings might possibly, in the first instance, have predisposed her to adopt, *that men are virtuous in proportion as they are happy, and happy in proportion as they are free.* She saw this truth exemplified in the history of modern as of ancient times. Every where knowledge, mental refinement, and the gentler, as the more ennobling, feelings of humanity have kept pace, in flux or reflux, with the growth or depression of the spirit of freedom.

‘But while human liberty has engaged the attention of the enlightened, and enlisted the feelings of the generous, of all civilized

nations, may we not inquire if this liberty has been rightly understood? Has it not been with limitations and exceptions, tending to neutralise its effects; with invidious distinctions, tending to foster jealousies, or to inspire injurious ambition? Has it, in short, been pure and entire in principle, universal in the objects it embraces, and equal for all races and classes of men? Liberty without equality, what is it but a chimera? And equality, what is it also but a chimera, unless it extend to all the enjoyments, exertions, and advantages, intellectual and physical, of which our nature is capable?

‘One nation, and as yet one nation only, has declared all men “born free and equal,” and conquered the political freedom and equality of its citizens, with the lamentable exception, indeed, of its citizens of colour. But is there not a liberty yet more precious than what is termed *national*, and an equality more precious than what is termed *political*? Before we are citizens, are we not human beings, and ere we can exercise equal rights, must we not possess equal advantages, equal means of improvement and of enjoyment?’

‘Political liberty may be said to exist in the United States of America, and (without adverting to the yet unsettled, though we may fondly trust secured republics of America’s southern continent,) *only there*. Moral liberty exists *no where*.

‘By political liberty we may understand the liberty of speech and action, without incurring the violation of authority, or the penalties of law. By moral liberty, may we not understand the *free exercise of the liberty of speech and of action*, without incurring the intolerance of popular prejudice and ignorant public opinion? To secure the latter where the former liberty exists, what is necessary “but to will it?” Far truer is the assertion as here applied to moral liberty, than as, heretofore, applied to political liberty. To free ourselves of thrones, aristocracies, and hierarchies, of fleets and armies, and all the arrayed panoply of organised despotism, it is *not* sufficient to will it. We must fight for it, and fight for it too with all the odds of wealth, and power, and position, against us. But when the field is won, to use it is surely ours; and if the possession of the right of free action inspire not the courage to exercise the right, liberty has done but little for us. It is much to have the fetters broken from our limbs, but yet better is it to have them broken from the mind. It is much to have declared men free and equal, but it shall be more when they are rendered so; when means shall be sought, and found, and employed, to develop all the intellectual and physical powers of all human beings, without regard to sex or condition, class, race, nation, or colour; and when men shall learn to view each other as one great family, with equal claims to enjoyment, and equal capacities for labour and instruction, admitting always the sole differences arising out of the varieties exhibited in individual organization.

'It were superfluous to elucidate by argument the baleful effects arising out of the division of labour as now existing, and which condemns the large half of mankind to an existence purely physical, and the remaining portion to pernicious idleness, and occasionally to exertions painfully, because solely, intellectual. He who lives in the single exercise of his mental faculties, however usefully or curiously directed, is equally an imperfect animal with the man who knows only the exercise of his muscles. Let us consider the actual condition of our species. Where shall we find even a single individual, male or female, whose mental and physical powers have been fairly cultivated and developed? How, then, is it with the great family of human kind? We have addressed our ingenuity to improve the nature and beautify the forms of all the tribes of animals domesticated by our care; but man has still neglected man; ourselves, our own species, our own nature, are deemed unworthy, even unbecoming, objects of experiment. Why should we refuse to the human animal care at least equal to that bestowed on the horse or the dog? His forms are surely not less susceptible of beauty; and his faculties, more numerous and exalted, may challenge, at least, equal development.

'The spirit of curiosity and inquiry which distinguishes the human animal, and which not all the artificial habits and whimsical prejudices of mis-called civilisation have sufficed to quench, seems as yet, for the most part, to have been idly directed. Arts and sciences are multiplied, wants are imagined, and luxuries supplied; but the first of all sciences is left in the germ; the first great science of human beings, the science of human life, remains untouched, unknown, unstudied; and he who would speak of it might, perhaps, excite only astonishment. All the wants and comforts of man are now abstracted as it were, from himself. We hear of the wealth of nations, of the powers of production, of the demand and supply of markets, and we forget that these words mean no more, if they mean any thing, than the happiness, the labour, and the necessities of men. Is it not the unnatural division of mankind into classes—operative, consuming, professional, enlightened, ignorant, &c.—which inspires this false mode of reasoning, and leads the legislator and economist to see in the most useful of their fellow-creatures only so much machinery for the creation of certain articles of commerce—and to pronounce a nation rich, not in proportion to the number of individuals who enjoy, but to the mass of ideal wealth thrown into commercial circulation? Surely it is time to inquire if our very sciences are not frequently as unmeaning as our teachers are mistaken, and our books erroneous. Surely it is time to examine into the meaning of words and the nature of things, and to arrive at simple facts, not received upon the dictum of learned authorities, but upon attentive personal observation of what is passing around us. And surely it is more especially time to inquire why the occu-

pations the most useful and absolutely necessary to our existence and well-being should be held in dispute, and those the most useless, nay, the most frequently mischievous, should be held in honour. The husbandman who supports us by the fruits of his labour, the artisan to whom we owe all the comforts and conveniences of life, are banished from what is termed intellectual society; nay, worse, but too often condemned to the most severe physical privations, and the grossest mental ignorance, while the soldier who lives by our crimes, the lawyer by our quarrels and our rapacity, and the priest by our credulity or our hypocrisy, are honoured with public consideration and applause. Were human life studied as a science, and, as it truly is, the first and most important of all sciences, to which every other should be viewed as the hand-maiden, it would soon appear that we are only happy in a due and well-proportioned exercise of all our powers, physical, intellectual, and moral;—that bodily labour becomes a pleasure, when varied with mental occupation, and cheered by free and happy affection, and that no occupation can in itself be degrading, which has the comfort and well-being of man for its object.

‘It will appear evident, upon attentive consideration, that equality of intellectual and physical advantages is the only sure foundation of liberty, and that such equality may best, and perhaps only, be obtained by a union of interests, and co-operation in labour. The existing principle of selfish interest and competition has been carried to its extreme point, and in its progress has isolated the heart of man, blunted the edge of his finest sensibilities, and annihilated all his most generous impulses and sympathies. Need we hesitate to denounce the principle as vicious which places the interest of each individual in continual opposition to those of his fellows, which makes of one man’s loss another’s gain, and inspires a spirit of accumulation that crushes every noble sentiment, fosters every degrading one, makes of this globe a scene of strife, and the whole human race idolaters of gold?

‘And must we be told that this is in the nature of things? It certainly is in the nature of our anti-social institutions, and need we seek any stronger argument to urge against them?

‘Man has ever been adjudged a social animal. And so he truly is, equally—we might even hazard the assertion—*more* capable of being moved to generous feeling and generous action, through his affections and his interests rightly understood, than he is now moved to violence, rapine, and fraud, by hard necessity and his interests falsely interpreted. Let us not libel human nature. It is what circumstance has made it. But, as profiting by experience, we shall change the education of youth, remould our institutions, correct our very ideas of true and false, of right and wrong, of vice and virtue—we may see human nature assume a new form, and

present an appearance rich in peace and enjoyment—yet more rich in future hope.

‘It will readily be conceded, that (how great soever the differences stamped on each individual by original organization) by fostering the good and repressing the evil tendencies, by developing every useful faculty and amiable feeling, and cultivating the peculiar talent or talents of every child as discovered in the course of education, all human beings (with the single and rare exceptions presented by malconformation of the physical organs) might be rendered useful and happy. And, admitting only a similar capability of improvement in our own species that we see in other races of animals, we may with justice set no limits to our expectations respecting it, so soon as it shall become, through successive generations, the object of judicious care, and enlightened and fearless experiment.

‘But if we should hazard the assertion that of children we may make what we please, we must accord that it is otherwise with men. The simplest principles become difficult of practice, when habits formed in error have been fixed by time; and the simplest truths hard to receive, when prejudice has warped the mind.

‘The founder of Nashoba looks not for the conversion of the existing generation: she looks not even for its sympathy. All that she ventures to anticipate is the co-operation of a certain number of individuals, acknowledging the same views with herself, a similar interest in the improvement of man, and a similar intrepidity to venture all things for his welfare. To these individuals, now scattered throughout the world, and unknown probably to each other, she ventures to address herself. From their union, their co-operation, their exertions, she ventures to expect a successful experiment in favour of human liberty and human happiness. Let them unite their efforts, (their numbers will not be too many,) and in a country where human speech and human action are free, let them plant their standard in the earth—declare fearlessly their principles, however opposed to the received opinions of mankind, and establish their practice accordingly, with consistency and perseverance.

‘This has been attempted at Nashoba; not in a spirit of hostility to the practice of the world, but with a strong moral conviction of the superior truth and beauty of that consecrated by the legal act of the founder. By a reference to that act, it will be seen that the principles on which the institution is based are those of human liberty and equality, without exceptions or limitations, and *its more special objects the protection and regeneration of the race of colour, universally oppressed and despised in a country self-denominated free.* This more immediate object was selected and specified by the founder; first, because her feelings had been peculiarly enlisted in behalf of the Negro; and secondly, because the aristocracy of colour is the peculiar vice of the country, which she had chosen as the seat of her experiment.

'The limits of the present address will not admit of a detailed defence of the principles, and explanation of the practice, of co-operative labour. And, however great their advantages, the founder of Nashoba views them as entirely subordinate to the one great principle of human liberty which she believes them calculated to further and secure.

'She sees in the co-operative system, as it has been termed, *the means, not the end* ; but, after mature consideration of its theory, and observation of its practice, believing it the best means yet discovered of securing one great end—that of human liberty and equality—she has for that reason, and that reason only, made it the base of the experiment at Nashoba.

'The institution of Nashoba being thus founded on the broad basis of human liberty and equality, every provision made by the legal act of the founder, as well as the subsequent regulations of the trustees, are shaped in accordance with it. It will be seen by a reference to that public record, of which it is recommended to attach a copy to this address, that the personal independence of each individual member of the society is effectually secured, and that, without disputing the established laws of the country, the institution recognises only within its bosom the force of its own principles.

'It is declared, in the deed of the founder, that no individual can be received as member, but after a noviciate of six months, and then only by a *unanimous* vote of the resident proprietors. It is also provided, that the admission of a husband shall not involve that of a wife, nor the admission of a wife that of a husband, nor the admission of either or both of the parents that of children above the age of fourteen. Each individual must pass through a separate trial, and be received or rejected on the strength of his or her merits or demerits. And as, in the reception of members, the individual character is the only one recognised, so, by the principles of the society, that character can never be forfeited. The marriage law, existing without the pale of the institution, is of no force within that pale. No woman can forfeit her individual rights or independent existence, and no man assert over her any rights or power whatsoever beyond what he may exercise over her free and voluntary affections. Nor, on the other hand, may any woman assert her claims to the society or peculiar protection of any individual of the other sex, beyond what mutual inclination dictates and sanctions ; while, to every individual member of either sex, is secured the protection and friendly aid of all.

'The tyranny usurped by the matrimonial law, over the most sacred of the human affections, can, perhaps, only be equalled by that of the unjust public opinion, which so frequently stamps with infamy, or condemns to martyrdom, the best grounded and most generous attachments which ever did honour to the human heart,

simply because unlegalized by human ceremonies, equally idle and offensive in the form, and mischievous in the tendency.

'This tyranny, as now exercised over the strongest, and at the same time, if refined by mental cultivation, the noblest of the human passions, had probably its source in religious prejudice and priestly rapacity; while it has found its plausible and more philosophical apology in the apparent dependence of children on the union of the parents. To this plea it might perhaps be replied, that the end, how important soever, is not secured by the means; that the forcible union of unsuitable and unsuited parents can little promote the happiness of the offspring; and that, supposing the protection of children to be the real source and object of our code of morals and of our matrimonial laws, what shall we say of the effects of these humane provisions on the fate and fortunes of one large family of helpless innocents, born into the world in spite of all prohibitions and persecutions, and whom a cruel law, and yet more cruel opinion, disown and stigmatise? But how wide a field does this topic embrace? How much cruelty, how much oppression of the weak and the helpless, does it not involve?

'The children denominated illegitimate or *natural* (as if in contradistinction of others who should be out of nature because under law) may be multiplied to any number by an unprincipled father, easily exonerated by law and custom from the duties of paternity, while these duties and their accompanying shame are left to a mother, but too often rendered desperate by misfortune! And should we follow out our review of the law of civilised countries, we shall find the offspring termed legitimate, with whom honour and possession are associated, adjudged, in case of matrimonial dissensions, to the father, who, by means of this legal claim, has not unfrequently bowed to servitude the spirit of a fond mother, and held her as a galley-slave to the oar.

'But it is not here that this subject can be discussed in all its bearings. The writer of this article will, however, challenge all the advocates of existing institutions, and existing opinions, to test them by the secret feelings of their own bosom, and then to pronounce on their justice. She will challenge them to consider the wide field of human society as now existing, to examine its practice, and to weigh its theory, and to pronounce on the consistency of the one and the virtue of the other. She will challenge them to determine how many of the moral evils, and numerous family of physical diseases which now torture the human species, have their source in the false opinions, and vicious institutions, which have perverted the best source of human happiness—the intercourse of the sexes—into the deepest source of human misery. Let us look into our streets, our hospitals, our asylums; let us look into the secret thought of the anxious parent trembling for the minds and bodies of sons starting into life, or mourning over the dying health of

daughters condemned to the unnatural repression of feelings and desires inherent in their very organisation, and necessary alike to their moral and physical well-being.

‘Or let us look to the victims—not of pleasure—not of love—nor yet of their own depravity, but of those ignorant laws, ignorant prejudices, and of that ignorant code of morals, which condemn one portion of the female sex to vicious excess, another to as vicious restraint, and all to defenceless helplessness and slavery; and generally the whole of the male sex to debasing licentiousness, if not to loathsome brutality.

‘And must we be told, that “private vices are public benefits,” that the units of individual misery make the sum of the general good? or, that the immolation of some, and suffering of all, are requisite to secure public order, and to moderate human population to the supplies yielded for its support? As if living creatures could ever, for any space of time, positively exceed the means of subsistence; or as if their tendency to increase beyond a healthy sufficiency of these means could ever be repressed, save by the increase and spread of real knowledge, which should teach human beings to consider the creation of other human beings as the most important of all actions, and the securing to the beings of their creation a sound and healthy organisation, and an equally sound and healthy education, with all the means of a happy existence, as the most important of all duties. In the moral, intellectual, and physical cultivation of both sexes, should we seek, as we can only find, the source and security of human happiness and human virtue. Prejudice and fear are weak barriers against passions which, inherent in our nature, and demanding only judicious training to form the ornament and supply the best joys of our existence, are maddened into violence by pernicious example and pernicious restraint, varied with as pernicious indulgence. Let us correct our views of right and wrong, correct our moral lessons, and so correct the practice of rising generations! Let us not teach that virtue consists in crucifying the affections and appetites, but in their judicious government! Let us not attach ideas of purity to monastic chastity, impossible to man or woman without consequences fraught with evil, nor ideas of vice to connexions formed under the auspices of kind feeling! Let us inquire—not if a mother be a wife, or a father a husband, but if parents can supply, to the creatures they have brought into being, all things requisite to make existence a blessing—let the force of public opinion be brought against the thoughtless ignorance or cruel selfishness which, under the sanction of a legal or religious permit, so frequently multiplies offspring beyond the resources of the parents. Let us check the force of passions, as well as their precocity, not by the idle terror of imaginary crime in the desire itself, but by just and benevolent apprehension of bringing into existence unhappy or imperfect beings! Let us teach the

young mind to reason, and the young heart to feel ; and, instead of shrouding our own bodies, wants, desires, senses, affections, and faculties, in mystery, let us court inquiry, and show that acquaintance with our own nature can alone guide us to judicious practice ; and that in the consequence of human actions exists the only true test of their virtue or their vice.

‘ We need only observe the effects of the present system to be convinced of its error. Where is the repressive force of public opinion perceived ? Whom does it affright ? The poor, the ignorant, the unhappy pauper, the diseased profligate, the licentious hypocrite ? Is it they who feel the force either of just or unjust censure, or who hesitate to call into existence sentient beings, born to ignorance, want, or disease ? No ! is it not rather upon that class whose feelings and intellects have been mostly cultivated, and who, consequently, are best fitted to give life to a healthy and intellectual race, upon whom the weight of coercive prejudice falls ?

‘ Let us advert to the far more important half of the human species, (whether we consider their share in the first formation and rearing of the infant, or their moral influence on society.) Let us consider the effects of existing institutions and opinions as exemplified among women. In what class do we find the largest number of childless females and devoted victims to unnatural restraints ? Certainly among the cultivated, talented, and independent women, who, (in England more especially,) shrink equally from the servitude of matrimony, and from the opprobrium stamped on unlegalised connections.

‘ But, again, the writer of this address must observe, that she can here only touch upon subjects which she feels herself prepared to examine in detail ; but which she must defer until a suitable medium be supplied in the periodical publication, which it will be the object of the Society to issue, so soon as it can be done consistently with its interests.

‘ It is considered, that the peculiar object of the founder, “The benefit of the Negro race,” may best be consulted by the admission and incorporation of suitable individuals of that and the mixed race, on the same principles of equality which guide the admission of all members ; and farther, that such individuals may best be found among the *free citizens of colour*, who form no inconsiderable and frequently a very respectable body in the American population, more especially in that of the southern cities.

‘ As it was the object of the founder to attempt the peaceful influence of example, and silently to correct the practice and reach the laws through the feelings and the reason of the American people, she carefully forbore from outraging any of the legal provisions in the slave state in which she ventured to attempt her experiment, or those of any of the slave states with which she is ac-

quainted; and trusted confidently to the national good sense, and to the liberality fostered by the national institutions, for the safety of any experiment, however opposed to the national prejudices, which should be undertaken in a spirit of kindness to all men, and conducted within the limits of private, or, as in the present case, of associate property.

It is not to be supposed that, (with some rare exceptions,) human beings raised under the benumbing influence of brutal slavery, can be elevated to the level of a society based upon the principles of moral liberty and voluntary co-operation. The experiment, therefore, as respects the *slave* population, it is intended to limit, at Nashoba, to the first purchase of the founder, excepting in cases where planters, becoming members, may wish to place their Negroes under the protection of the institution. And looking to effect the more especial object of the Institution through the present free race of colour, and more especially by the education of coloured children, the founder judged that she should best conciliate the laws of the Southern States, and the popular feeling of the whole union, as well as the interests of the emancipated Negro, by providing for the colonisation of all slaves emancipated by the Society, in a free country, without the limits of the United States. Personal observation had taught her the danger of launching a freed slave into the midst of an inimical population. And if unfit, as he must of necessity be, for incorporation into the Society as a free proprietor, it appeared consistent with justice and humanity to enjoin his being sent to a country of safety for his colour, when ejected from the protection of the Institution.

‘ While occupied, as they fondly hope, in paving the way for the moral regeneration of America’s citizens of colour, the Trustees of Nashoba believe that *slavery* may safely be left to work its own ruin. The falling price of cotton must soon reduce to zero the profits of the upland planter, and fortunately the growth of sugar is restricted by climate to a small portion of the American slave territory. But when the bankrupt fortunes of the southern planters shall have put an end to the internal slave trade of the United States, and Maryland, Virginia, and Kentucky, the Guinea of the states farther south, shall have lost their last staple *commodity of profit*, the principles avowed in this paper may attract the national attention, and the olive of peace and brotherhood be embraced by the white man and the black; and their children, approached in feeling and education, gradually blend into one of their blood and their hue.

‘ The writer of this Address is fully aware, that the topic most offensive to the American public is that now under consideration. But so, to that public, is it more peculiarly addressed, not, it will be believed, with a view to offend, but with the single view of exposing the principles of Nashoba to the American people, and call-

ing their attention to the cool investigation of a subject unhappily seldom approached but with the anger of sectional, or the pride of national feeling.

‘The strength of the prejudice of colour, as existing in the United States, and in the European Colonies, can in general be little conceived, and less understood, in the Old Continent; yet, however whimsical it may there appear, is it, in fact, more ridiculous than the European prejudice of birth?’

‘The superior excellence which the one supposes in a peculiar descent, or merely in a peculiar name, the other imagines in a peculiar complexion or a set of features; and perhaps it is only by considering man in many countries, and observing all his varying and contradictory prejudices, that we can discover the equal absurdity of all.

‘Those to whom the American institutions and American character are familiar, and who have considered the question of Negro slavery in all its bearings, will probably be disposed to pronounce, with the writer of this address, that the emancipation of the coloured population cannot be *progressive through the laws*, it must, and can only be *progressive through the feelings*; and, through that medium, be finally complete and entire, involving at once political equality, and the amalgamation of the races.

‘And has nature, (as slave-apologists would tell us,) drawn a rubicon between the human varieties of physiognomy and complexion? or need we enter into details, to prove that no *natural antipathy* blinds the white Louisianian to the charms of the graceful Quadroon, however the force of prejudice, or the fear of public censure, makes of her his mistress, and of the whiter skinned, but often not more accomplished or more attractive female, his wife? Or must we point to the intercourse in its most degraded forms, where the child is the marketable slave of its father? Idle, indeed, is the assertion, that the mixture of the races is not in nature. If the assertion involve any distinct idea, might it not be asked, how, if not in nature, it could take place, and take place, as we see it do, of free choice, and that too in despite of all that popular feeling can bring against it? Seeing, then, that the mixture of the races is in nature, the only question seems to be, whether it shall take place in good feeling and good taste, and be made at once the means of sealing the tranquillity, and perfecting the liberty of the country, and of peopling it with a race more suited to its southern climate than the pure European, or whether it shall proceed, as it now does, viciously and degradingly, mingling hatred and fear with the ties of blood; denied, indeed, but stamped by nature herself upon the skin. The education of the race of colour would doubtless make the amalgamation more rapid, as well as more creditable, &c.; and so far from considering the physical amalgamation of the two colours, when accompanied by a moral approximation, as an evil, it must

surely be viewed as a good equally desirable for both. In this belief, the more especial object of the founder of Nashoba was to raise the man of colour to the level of the white. When fitted by habits of industry, and suitable dispositions, to have him received as a brother and equal, and after due trial, as proprietor trustee of the property; to educate his children with white children; and thus approaching their minds, tastes, and occupations, to leave the affections of future generations to the dictates of free choice.

‘It may be necessary to advert to one provision of the deed of trust, which establishes a difference between trustees and associates, and fixes a period (fifty years from the date of the gift of the property) when the distinction shall cease, and every proprietor possess the full character of trustee.

‘The founder being greatly anxious that the principles of moral and intellectual liberty, consecrated in her deed, should be preserved pure in practice as in principle, and that its more especial object—the protection and regeneration of the race of colour—should never be lost sight of, so long as the oppression of that race shall find a sanction in the laws, or in the feelings, of the more numerous population, she was desirous of confining the moral trust of the institution within very special limits. And yet, at the same time, believing that many individuals might constitute useful and happy members of the institution, whose intellectual faculties or moral courage might not be of that strength as to render them safe guardians of the principles, in practice at least, so novel, or of the peculiar interest of a proscribed race, she judged it a less evil to admit of a distinction in the powers, not in the rights, of future proprietors, than to restrict too scrupulously their number, or to endanger the great moral objects of the institution itself.

‘The duration of such a distinction was limited to fifty years, in the belief that, before that period, the great majority of the adult members must be supplied from the schools of the institution, and consequently absolved from those prejudices with which we of the present generation are all of necessity more or less imbued.

‘The limits prescribed to the present address are already exceeded. But, however imperfectly elicited many of the principles here touched upon, it is believed the present observations will sufficiently explain the nature of the institution, and the bearing of the different provisions made in the deed of the founder. It remains only to explain a few regulations adopted by the trustees, and to present a few observations applicable to those who may imagine, in the institution, a mode of life and a moral practice suited to their feelings and opinions.

‘First. It must be premised that Nashoba offers only a life of exertion, and, at the present time, one of privation: rough cabins, simple fare, and active occupation. Yet, although based upon the

principle of co-operative labour, no less than upon that of united interest, the imperfect education and pernicious habits which have unfitted many of the present generation for regular active exertion, who may morally be most fitted to advance the interests of the institution, and to receive happiness therein, it is provided that an equivalent may be rendered in money by such members as cannot furnish by their labour suitable assistance to the society. The highest sum demanded of an individual is *two hundred dollars per annum*. The pecuniary demand, within this sum, will of course be proportioned to his or her fitness for useful occupation.

‘Secondly. Such as may possess the gifts of fortune, and the moral feeling to devote their property, or any part of it, to forward the object of the institution, will do so voluntarily, and must then place property so given at the disposal of the society, by a writing under their hand duly attested, and of which a record will be kept. But it will never be expected of any individual to bring with him more than the practical knowledge of a useful employment, agricultural or mechanical, with industry to pursue it steadily; or, as above stated, a sufficient equivalent in property to warrant exemption from the same.

‘Thirdly. The moral requisites which can alone ensure admission to any individual must, it is feared, circumscribe the admission of adults within narrow limits. An amiable and willing disposition, kindly affections, simple tastes, a high tone of moral feeling, with a liberal tone of thinking, must be evinced by those who aspire to the character of trustees of Nashoba.

‘Fourthly. It will sufficiently appear from the substance of this address, and from the observations appended to the deed itself, that religion occupies no place in the creed of the institution, and that the rule of *moral practice* there proposed has simply and singly in view human happiness; considering as virtuous whatever practice tends to promote that happiness, as vicious whatever tends to counteract it. It is indeed usual to attach as many meanings to the word religion, as there are varieties in human opinion; so that it may sometimes mean the faith of the Jews, at others that of Christ, at others the peculiar doctrines of Rome or Geneva, or sometimes the worship of the mystical first cause of simple Theism, and not unfrequently the moral principle acknowledged under various names by all teachers of what school soever. But as it is the especial object of the writer of this address to explain, as far as possible, and without risk of misapprehension, the principles of the society to which she appertains, she would expressly specify that she uses the term *religion* as distinct from *moral practice*, and as signifying *belief in, and worship rendered to, a Being or Beings not cognizable by the senses of man*. And though it will, of course, never be demanded of any individual to adopt the shades of opinion held by the existing proprietors, yet it is equally due to them, and to the

world, to remove all mystery from their principles, as from their practice, and to declare explicitly those opinions which they hold conscientiously. Candour is here the more necessary, as it is important that no one should seek the sanctuary of the institution without thoroughly understanding the opinions and practice of its members. Let it therefore be understood that, without making their opinions a law, they will ever claim for themselves that which they accord to others—perfect liberty of speech as of thought; and that, holding the exercise of this liberty one of the first pleasures of life, as also, in their public character, one of its first duties, they will never forego its exercise. Those, therefore, acknowledging religious feelings will do well to examine the extent of their liberality before entering the precincts of a society whose opinions might wound those feelings.

‘Fifthly, the existing resident trustees of the institution have also decided that no religious doctrines shall be taught in the school, whenever it may be organised; but the reason of the children be left to its free development, and encouraged to examine all opinions, and to receive or reject them, according to the bearing of facts, and the strength of their moral testimony.

‘Sixthly. In conformity with the provisions of the deed, which binds the trustees to the opening of a school for children of colour, and with a view to consult the best interests of the race peculiarly recommended to their care, as well as the best interests of humanity in general, they propose, so soon as measures can be taken and means supplied for their reception, to receive children, either as pensioners, for the sum of *one hundred dollars per annum*, all expenses included, or without payment, upon condition that the parents or guardians shall transfer to the institution all rights over the children so received: such children to be treated in all things and cared for the same as the children born in the institution.

‘Seventhly. Any persons of property sympathising with the objects of the institution, and desirous of contributing to forward the same, could not better apply their succours than to the building up of its school, either by devoting a sum of money for raising the necessary buildings, at the present much wanted, or by supplying them with books, maps, globes, a philosophical apparatus, &c. Donations of books, to aid the formation of the library of the institution, will be at all times highly valuable.

‘Eighthly. It is conceived that, with some exceptions, the institution of Nashoba will be found most suited to young persons of both sexes, of independent minds, and liberal education; men under the age of thirty, who have yet their attachments to form, and whose feelings are not unblunted by long commerce with the world, and by the debasing spirit of trade; and young women of mental energy, amiable manners and dispositions, and small independent property, or, in place of the latter, and which were yet better, possessing the knowledge of some useful occupation in the house, the

dairy, or the school, adequate to cover their expenses, and to promote the well-being of the society. It is particularly recommended to every young man, before he visit the institution with a view to being received therein, that he apply himself to some useful trade, by making a short but active apprenticeship to a good artisan or mechanic, blacksmith, carpenter, sawyer, brickmaker, bricklayer, shoemaker, tanner, weaver, &c., or to a farmer, gardener, &c. The grafting, pruning, and proper treatment of fruit trees, and skilful raising of vegetables; planting and dressing a vineyard; and, above all, the manual labour of a farm, the care and management of cattle, &c., will furnish employment of the first utility. It is also equally recommended to young women to acquire a previous knowledge of some useful employment,—plaiting and making straw-hats, spinning, weaving, simple cookery, baking, or any of the various occupations necessary to human life and social comfort. By this is meant not a general or imperfect knowledge of any employment, but a thorough and practical one. Let no one seek Nashoba with a view of teaching the science of a business, or superintending the work of others. All must bring hands as well as heads; and, above all, kind and willing hearts, ever disposed to make light of inconveniences, and to find the best enjoyment in promoting the happiness of others. Moreover, let none imagine that they can enter an institution based on the novel principle of co-operation without experiencing inconveniences and difficulties, both moral and physical. They will experience many: and nothing but a strong moral purpose, a real heart interest in the success of the undertaking, a deep conviction of the truth of the principles which it aspires practically to illustrate, can strengthen them to weather such difficulties. Possessed of the moral requisites, they will succeed, and ensure the success of the institution. But until a sufficient number, possessed of these qualifications, shall be collected at Nashoba, the experiment must remain as it is—in embryo only.

‘Ninthly. It would be well for every individual to bring with him the tools required in his particular trade; and Europeans, reaching the institution by way of New Orleans, may also bring with them a mattress, blankets, linen, and any other conveniences which their habits may render agreeable, and with which a young and remote settlement is but scantily provided. Among these should always be included a good knife, fork, spoon, and drinking-cup. Strangers will always render a service to the institution by bringing with them any valuable seeds of superior quality, for the garden or farm; cuttings of valuable vines, or grafts of fruits.

‘Nashoba is situated fourteen miles from the little town of Memphis, which stands on the eastern bank of the Mississippi river, 800 miles above the city of New Orleans. Those reaching it from Europe, by the route of New Orleans, should be careful to avoid arriving in that city during the midsummer and early autumnal months. By leaving any of the European ports during the month

of October, November, or December, they may expect to make the pleasantest southern passage, and will arrive in New Orleans during a delightful season. From New Orleans steam-boats, which navigate the Mississippi at all seasons, will land passengers and luggage at Memphis, where they will find themselves within a short ride, or even walk, of Nashoba. Those preferring the northern route, by New York or Philadelphia, can make the voyage during any of the summer or autumnal months, from April till November, and may then traverse the most interesting part of the United States, and take the steam-boat for Memphis, on the upper waters of the Ohio. For this route, the spring and early summer months are the most convenient, the rivers being then full and navigation open. It may be well to observe that this route is the most interesting, but the most expensive.

‘It is proposed to establish regular communications between the society and suitable correspondents in the leading countries of Europe :—Great Britain, France, Germany, Holland, and Switzerland.

‘At present, it will suffice to name the Co-operative Society, Red-lion-square, London ; and Count de Lasteyrie, Paris.

‘FRANCES WRIGHT.’

‘At Sea, Dec. 4, 1827.’

MARIUS AMONG THE RUINS OF CARTHAGE.

‘ — Manet altâ mente repostum.’

Virg., lib. 1.

‘ I sequare Italiam ventis, —’

Virg., lib. 4.

FRAIL monuments of humbled pride,
 Fall’n fanes with ivy twin’d were seen,
 And by a shatter’d column’s side
 A chief, with warrior mien :
 But who is he that silently
 Sits sternly and alone,
 With aspect high ; while in his eye
 The Roman’s glance is known ?
 See, ruin-like, ’mid ruins there,
 The Roman’s chief, the Roman’s foe,
 Above a nation’s sepulchre,
 That slept in dust below.
 The sun that shone in brightness on
 His glory, scarce had set ;
 The wreath that bound his brows around,
 Its flowers are fading yet !
 He saw the day-beam fade in gloom,
 He saw the darkness steal around,

And in the quiet of the tomb
 Congenial silence found.
 There as he gaz'd, his soul was rais'd,
 As through the solitude,
 Deep on his ear, a voice of fear
 Still whisper'd deeds of blood.

Darkly, O Carthage, closed the day
 O'er arsenals and palaces,
 Laid level with the sea-wave's play;
 But through the wilderness
 It's sandy bed o'er all has spread
 The spirit of the land,—
 In her own reign, did yet remain,
 Guard of the barren strand.

'Twas long since Scipio mourn'd to see
 That fall, as high the red flame rose;
 And far the spirit knew must be
 Her vengeance on her foes:
 Long as she wept, her watch she kept,
 Though Rome seem'd victor still;
 Waiting the hour, in shine and shower,
 That vengeance to fulfil.

And now she knew the hour was come,
 She knew the chief the fates demand;
 She fired with injuries of Rome,
 And nerved his head and hand;
 While quickly grew his brow's dark hue
 More stern than threat'ning skies,
 Thoughts wild and fast throng'd thickly past
 As still she call'd, 'Arise!'

So, though her vengeance tarried long,
 A harvest rich for all her dead
 Her wrath should reap—for every wrong
 A thousand years had spread;
 From him confest, a faithless guest,
 The Trojan wanderer;
 Till mid the glow of funes laid low,
 Trod her proud vanquisher.

Rise, Roman! rise, triumphant hate
 Bids to the tented field away;
 There let thy country learn too late
 What recompense that day
 Of scorn demands, even at her hands,
 When thee she chased afar;
 Up, mighty lord! the unsheath'd sword
 Thirsts for the feast of war!

THE MILITARY POWER OF TURKEY.

BEFORE the insurrection of the Greeks, and the invasion of the Russians, Turkey, separated from its provinces in Asia and Africa, held the sixth rank among the states of Europe, from the extent of its territory, and the ninth as to population. The number of its inhabitants was almost equal to a third of that of France, the half of the Britannic isles, to the whole population of Spain, and differed little from that of Prussia. But the consequences which this comparison would seem to offer, were rendered illusory by the dissemination of its inhabitants over an immense surface—by the difference of their origin, their religion, and their particular tenets, which made slaves of some, masters of others, and irreconcilable enemies of all. The following details will give an idea of the influence which the Ottoman empire received from each of its provinces of Europe, and of the extent of the losses which it has suffered, or is about to suffer.

Independently of Greece, or, at least, that which is about to become so, comprising Livadia, the Morea, and the Cyclades. Its extent is about 3,227 square leagues; it is larger than the Netherlands, and differs little in extent from Portugal or Denmark, with its German states. Before the war, its population amounted to 1,350,000. Thus the heaths of Hanover or Saxony are now more peopled than the territory which formerly comprised Lacedemonia, Corinth, Argos, Thebes, and Athens. This calculation is the same as that for the wilds of Scotland, only 420 persons for each square league; whilst Attica alone contained fifteen times this number twenty centuries ago. From an attentive study of the ancient histories of Greece, it is found that the population of the Peloponnesus, at the invasion by the Persians, exceeded 1,130,000 persons, of whom a third were free. There were then 965 persons to each square league; whilst, in 1817, the Morea having only 420,000 inhabitants, this number was reduced to 360.

The Cyclades having, it is true, 615 inhabitants to each square mile, their population is half as large again, and they equal Poland, or the empire of Austria, in extent.

It will be seen what efforts the freedom extended to these islands, aided by industry and commercial enterprise, has effected in half a century. If the same causes were to act with the same force upon the Morea and Greece, properly so called, it would even then require a whole century before these unhappy countries could acquire a population equal to what they formerly possessed.

The loss of Livadia, the Morea, and the islands of the Archipelago, exclusively of those of Asia, has reduced the European ter-

ritory of the Ottoman empire a seventh, and its population nearly an eighth. It was about the same for Turkey, as the dismemberment of Brittany and Normandy would be for France.

But it is almost impossible for the insurrection not to extend to the countries north of Greece, as soon as the Turkish troops shall have been forced to evacuate them, solely by the progress of the Russians beyond the Danube. This event, which seems about to take place, will strike a fatal blow at the Ottoman power. The two immense countries, formerly known by the names of Macedonia and Epirus, but now designated as the Pashalics of Janina, Dalmatian and Albanian Turkey, have a surface of 4,463 square leagues. Their population is estimated at 2,650,000 inhabitants, or near 600 to each square mile, which is about the same as the Spanish Peninsula.

The Ottoman Empire, reduced as it already is by the loss of Greece, will be much more so if these two provinces are taken from it; they surpass the kingdom of Naples in extent, and Lombardy or Sweden in population. The emancipation of Macedonia and the Epirus, joined to that of Northern Greece, will take away from Turkey a territory of 7,690 square miles,—as large as England, and peopled with 4,000,000 of inhabitants, like Belgium; the extent will thus be diminished one-third.

The emancipation of the whole of Greece would be for Turkey the same as the loss of Scotland to England; and for France, as it she were to lose 28 departments. It would reduce its size to that of Norway, and its population to that of Ireland.

Not only has the invasion of the Russians, which has obliged the Ottoman forces to be concentrated in Romania to cover the capital, insured the emancipation of the northern provinces of Greece, but it has already, in its rapid progress, operated the deliverance of Wallachia and Moldavia, and carried away from Turkey one-third of its territory, and a fourth of its population. These two countries united, form an extent of 5,903 square miles, equal to the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily. A few years ago they contained 1,840,000 inhabitants, as much as Denmark or Switzerland. In 1815, France lost about as much by its wars, as the Ottoman empire will lose by the conquest of these two principalities.

The dismemberment of Wallachia and Moldavia, which, whatever be the ultimate fate of Turkey, seems inevitable, leaves to the Ottoman empire a territory of 10,000 square miles, and a population of 5,400,000 inhabitants. This is about the same extent as Hungary, with a population much inferior to that of the Netherlands, and scarcely equal to the kingdom of Naples.

But among the six provinces which remain to Turkey, the half of them bear but an uncertain allegiance, or, from their situation, cannot be of any assistance to her. Bosnia and Illyria are separated from the theatre of war by so great a distance, besides other obsta-

cles, that three months would be necessary to make the levies, or before an army could be encamped in the plains of Adrianople. Servia, which has fought with so much energy and perseverance, in order to be freed from the Ottoman yoke, is only attached to it by uncertain ties and its hostages.

These provinces, which, at the moment that the fate of the Ottoman empire is about to be decided, cannot give it any assistance, form a third of its European territory. Servia and Bosnia have a surface of 5,213 square leagues, and a population of 1,680,000 inhabitants. The tyrannical and devastating Government which rules them, has reduced them to the lowest scale of the habitable countries of Europe; they have only 322 inhabitants to each square mile, and a population less than that of Sicily, though the territory is more extensive than that of Poland.

The voluntary or forced defection of these provinces reduces the empire of the Crescent to Bulgaria and Romania. The territory comprised in them does not exceed 5,000 square miles. The number of inhabitants in Bulgaria is about 1,440,000, and 2,280,000 in Romania. This is 744 for the square mile, as in the mountains of Switzerland, and less than in Hanover; for 60,000 inhabitants live in the cities of Adrianople and Sophia, which reduces the estimate to 625 individuals per square mile, comprising the towns of the second order. The half-deserted provinces of Spain give a faint idea of the population of the centre of Turkey; but, in the Peninsula, the same religion prevails throughout, whilst the Ottoman empire is peopled by men divided by opinion, and implacably opposed to each other, as well on account of religion, as of their social position, their interests, habits, and the traditions of their ancestors. At Constantinople, the residence of the Sultan, the metropolis of Islamism, a quarter of the inhabitants is composed of Greeks, Jews, Armenians, and Rajahs, who never pass a day without cursing the Turks, and offering prayers for their destruction by a foreign invader. It is supposed that the number of Rajahs in Romania and Bulgaria exceeds 800,000, so that in the two countries, which, in reality, form the Ottoman empire, there are not three millions of Musulmans. Excepting in Denmark and the Swiss Confederation, there is no government so weak. Eight of the eighty-six departments of France furnish as large a population as Turkey, or even three only of the northern departments will equal it.

In order to form an idea of the resistance which such a population can oppose to invasion, the largest proportion of military levies in modern times must be taken, as the Ottomans would risk all rather than concede any point. In 1793, France, then peopled with 25,000,000, armed for its defence 3,000,000 of national guards, and organised 1,400,000 of other soldiers. Thus its levy, taking the total, was as one out of eight persons, and its effective army comprised one soldier out of eighteen individuals—about a fifth of the

population. No such example of a military effort of this kind is to be found in modern annals ; and it is equal to the levies of ancient Greece and Rome, which had war alone for their object. But supposing that the religious fanaticism of the Musulmans could effect this, the Porte would have 375,000 men, and two armies of 80,000 soldiers each, who might defend the passage of the Danube, or cover the capital, and oppose the operations of the redoubtable fleet in the Black Sea. But, in order to effect this, popular excitation alone is not sufficient ; it is necessary to organise a military population—to arm them, to instruct them, to provide them with ammunition, and to set experienced chiefs over them. Turkey, however, has deprived herself of all those means of defence, by obstinately opposing all improvements, and wishing to remain in the ignorance of the middle ages. Its population, reduced below that of Portugal, is probably incapable of making greater efforts than that country for its preservation, and cannot put into line an army of more than 60,000 men, which, like the levy of the Portuguese troops in 1812, is one soldier out of fifty inhabitants. Admitting, against all probability, that this levy could be doubled, it is hardly possible that the Porte could oppose 120,000 Musulmans to the 300,000 Russians which have passed the Danube, and which have behind them a reserve of 400,000 men.

The accounts from Constantinople have stated the number of effective men under the command of Itabil Pasha, as under 30,000 men ; and thus Turkey has imprudently engaged herself in a contest with an empire whose vast projects are aided by such a colossal force as to leave no chance either for courage or for good fortune. If we compare the two armies which are now in sight of each other, we shall find that six Turkish soldiers are called upon to oppose fifteen Russians ; and who, if they escape from the effects of this overpowering superiority, may soon be crushed by six of their internal enemies. Turkey, deprived of the population of its dominions in Asia and Africa, and separated from Greece, only possesses one inhabitant where Russia has fifteen. This numerical fact would seem sufficient to anticipate their inevitable fate, though the courage of the Turks may render the contest most sanguinary. Such is now the state of the Turkish empire, formerly so powerful ; its existence depends upon an army of 120,000 men only, and the result of one battle may be the destruction of the old walls of Constantinople, and the conclusion of a barbarous domination, which has lasted four centuries, and extended Islamism in Europe ; to expulse into Asia a race whose victories menaced, for a long time, the civilisation of the East ; to raise Greece from the midst of its burning and sanguinary ruins, and to erect a new Eastern empire, more extensive than ancient Rome, and more formidable, perhaps, to the peace and liberty of the world.

THE UNRIVALLED BEAUTY AND GLORY OF RELIGION.

(From a Correspondent.)

[The following beautiful lines are by a poet hardly known, I believe, (Henry Moore, of Liskeard,) published about twenty years ago in a thin quarto volume, with other effusions of equal merit, but most undeservedly neglected, then and since :—]

SOFT are the fruitful flowers that bring
 The welcome promise of the spring,
 And soft the vernal gale :
 Sweet the wild warblings of the grove,
 The voice of nature and of love,
 That gladdens every vale.

But softer in the mourner's ear
 Sounds the mild voice of mercy near
 That whispers sins forgiven ;
 And sweeter far the music swells
 When to the raptur'd soul she tells
 Of peace and promis'd heaven.

Fair are the flowers that deck the ground,
 And groves and gardens blooming round,
 Unnumber'd charms unfold :
 Bright is the sun's meridian ray,
 And bright the beams of setting day,
 That robe the clouds in gold.

But far more fair the pious breast,
 In richer robes of goodness drest,
 Where Heaven's own graces shine ;
 And brighter far the prospects rise
 That burst on Faith's delighted eyes
 From glories all divine.

All earthly charms, however dear,
 Howe'er they please the eye or ear,
 Will quickly fade and fly ;
 Of earthly glory faint the blaze,
 And soon the transitory rays
 In endless darkness die.

The nobler beauties of the just
 Shall never moulder in the dust,
 Or know a sad decay ;
 Their honours time and death defy,
 And round the throne of heaven on high
 Beam everlasting day.

TRIAL BY JURY IN INDIA.

THE following Regulation is so important, that we cannot give too prominent a place in our pages. Its introduction was effected at Madras by Mr. Graeme, who held the Government of that Presidency, temporarily only, between the death of Sir Thomas Munro and the arrival of Mr. Lushington. It is, undoubtedly, to the example of Sir Alexander Johnstone, in introducing the excellent Trial by Jury into Ceylon, supported as that example has since been by the efforts of the press in India and in England, that this great step in Indian legislation is to be attributed. Nevertheless, the individual who had the honour to bring it first into practice, deserves great praise; and to those who have been instrumental, by their advocacy either in England or in India, to the completion of this great work, it must be a matter of pride and consolation to find their efforts thus rewarded by success. We beg particularly to direct the reader's attention to the parts marked in Italics and Capitals in the preamble, as admitting to the full extent all that the advocates of this great measure ever contended for. May the work of amelioration thus proceed, and benefit to England and to India be the happy result! The Regulation is as follows:—

A Regulation for the gradual introduction of Trial by Jury into the Criminal Judicature of the Territories subject to the Presidency of Fort St. George.—Passed by the Governor in Council, on the 11th September, 1827.

I. WHEREAS the more extended employment of the Natives of India in the administration of Criminal Justice to their countrymen is calculated very materially to facilitate the tracing of facts from evidence, and to shorten Criminal trials by dispensing with the record of much which is at present required to be reduced into writing in several languages, AS WELL AS TO RAISE THE CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE; and whereas it has been deemed expedient, for this end, to introduce gradually into the Criminal Judicature of the Territories subject to this Presidency the advantages of trial by Jury, under such modifications as are best adapted to the local circumstances of these several provinces respectively; the Governor in Council has therefore been pleased to pass this regulation, to be in force from and after the date of its promulgation.

II. *First.* It shall be competent to the Governor in Council, by an order of Council, to authorise any Judge of Circuit about to hold the quarterly or half-yearly gaol deliveries, to cause Juries to be assembled for the trial of all Criminal cases that may be brought before him.

Second. The Judges so authorised shall have liberty to try any particular case under the regulations heretofore in force, and not by

a Jury, recording their reasons in the Calendar for the information of the Foujdaree Udalut.

III. All established Native residents in every Zillah, of the Hindoo or Mohammedan persuasion, of reputed intelligence, respectability, and consideration, and between twenty-five and sixty years of age, shall be eligible to serve on Juries.

IV. *First.* The following descriptions of persons are exempted from serving on Juries.

Persons afflicted with diseases which confine them to their homes.

Zemindars and Jagheerdars of superior rank.

Ascetics, and persons who, by habit or religious vows, have relinquished the practice of going forth into public and engaging in worldly concerns.

Persons devoted to the service of religious offices, such as Peers, Faqueers, Gooroos, and other priests.

Persons who openly and constantly practise the profession of physic.

The law officers, vakeels, and officers and servants of the Courts.

The servants of the revenue department of the zillah.

All soobadars and other commissioned officers, and all other persons in the military service of Government.

Second. It shall be competent to the Governor in Council, by an order of Council, to declare any other description of persons or any individuals exempt, on a representation from any of the Courts in the provinces, through the Foujdaree Udalut.

V. Lists shall be taken periodically by the officers of Government, who shall be appointed for the purpose under the orders of the Governor in Council, of all persons within their respective jurisdictions qualified as described in section III., and not exempted. These lists shall be transmitted to the Criminal Judge, and formed into one general register for the whole zillah, to be kept in the Criminal Court and renewed periodically. In this register shall be entered, in a separate column, the date on which each individual was last summoned to serve on a Jury.

VI. *First.* Any person who may consider himself unjustly excluded from these lists, or included when he ought to be exempted, may appeal from such exclusion or inclusion in any stage of the measures for forming the register to the officer who formed the original list, and that officer shall receive and forward it with his opinion thereon to the next superior authority; who shall recommend the inclusion or exclusion of the appellant's name, according to the best of his judgment.

Second. Any Native officer refusing or neglecting to receive or

forward such an appeal, shall, on proof thereof, before the Criminal Judge, be fined in a sum not exceeding twenty rupees.

Third. The Criminal Judge shall include or exclude the name according as, in his judgment, the appellant may or may not have established his right to be included or exempted; and the Criminal Judge's decision shall be final.

VII. *First.* When a Circuit Judge shall be authorised to hold Trials by Jury, he shall issue a precept to the Criminal Judge of each zillah, at least twenty days previous to the probable day of opening the sessions, therein requiring him to assemble a sufficient number of Jurors.

Second. The number to be summoned shall be fixed by the Criminal Judge; it shall not be less than thirty nor more than seventy-two, unless the permission of the Judge on Circuit be first obtained.

VIII. Immediately on receipt of the Circuit Judge's precept, the Criminal Judge shall take by lot the names of the intended number of Jurors: but in drawing the lots, he shall exclude the names of all persons who have been summoned to serve on a Jury at any time within two years, unless the required number cannot be otherwise obtained, than by including them—so that no man, except in case of necessity, shall be summoned to serve on a Jury oftener than once in two years.

IX. The Criminal Judge shall issue a summons to each person whose name is drawn, so that the summons shall reach his registered place of abode four days at least before it will be necessary for him to set out in order to reach the Court by the appointed time, travelling fifteen miles each day.

X. Every person, on receiving a summons, shall endorse or cause to be endorsed upon it his name and the date on which he received it, and the summons shall be returned to the Criminal Judge.

XI. The Criminal Judge shall have power to admit a sufficient excuse, such as sickness, death of a relation, family ceremony, &c., for non-attendance, if returned with the summons.

XII. *First.* Each Juror who attends shall be entitled to receive one rupee a-day for his expenses, from the day on which his attendance is required in the summons to the day on which he is discharged inclusive, and for as many days besides as his journey from home and back again may last, supposing him to travel fifteen miles a-day.

Second. The payment for the number of days allowed for his journey to the Court shall be receivable on the day of the Juror's arrival at the Court; the allowance for each day till his discharge, daily or otherwise, according as each may apply for it; and the allowance for his return home, on the day of his discharge.

• XIII. *First.* When the sessions are opened, the names of the

Jurors summoned and not excused shall be called over; and every Juror duly summoned who shall not answer to his name, and every Juror who shall withdraw himself without the permission of the presiding Judge on Circuit, shall be fined by the Criminal Judge in a sum not exceeding twenty rupees; unless he shall show good and unavoidable cause for his non-appearance or withdrawal, to the satisfaction of the Criminal Judge.

Second. Any Juror summoned who shall appear not to have attended, or to have withdrawn, through contumacy or contempt, shall be fined in a sum not exceeding ten times the amount specified in the preceding clause.

Third. Any Juror who has been fined under either of the two preceding Clauses may appeal against such fine to the presiding Judge on Circuit, and the presiding Judge shall confirm, remit, or modify the fine, as he may judge right.

XIV. The Jury for the trial of each prisoner shall consist of not less than eight nor more than twelve Jurors: who shall be chosen by lot out of the whole number in attendance.

XV. When the appointed number is chosen, their names shall be called; and they shall answer to their names in open Court in the presence of the Prisoner and Prosecutor.

XVI. The Prisoner and the Prosecutor shall be each allowed to challenge any number of Jurors for cause shown—the Court shall judge of the sufficiency of the cause, and, according to their judgment, retain the Jurors challenged, or choose by lot others in their room.

XVII. The Prisoner shall be allowed five peremptory challenges.

XVIII. When the Jury is completed, they shall choose one of their number to be their Foreman.

XIX. Each Juror shall take an oath or make a solemn declaration that he will well and truly try the accused, and give a true verdict according to the evidence and his own conscience.

XX. It shall not be requisite to reduce any of the evidence into the Persian language. In trials not referrible to the Foujdaree Udalt, the presiding Judge may dispense altogether with written depositions; and in lieu thereof, place upon record his own notes of the evidence: In cases referrible to the Court of Foujdaree Udalt, the evidence, for the present, shall be taken down in the current language of the District; but a discretion is hereby vested in that Court to dispense therewith, and to admit, in lieu thereof, the notes of the presiding Judge of Circuit, whenever they shall deem the same to be expedient.

XXI. After the examination in chief and cross-examination of each witness, every Juror shall have full liberty to put to him whatever questions may be required for the satisfaction of his own mind;

but the presiding Judge shall have authority to prevent unfair or leading questions being put.

XXII. The religious persuasion, official situation, or sex of witnesses, shall be no bar to their competence. If any other question arises as to the competency of a witness, it shall be decided by the presiding Judge of Circuit, who, in cases of difficulty, may refer to the Court of Foujdaree Udalt, by whose orders he shall be guided.

XXIII. No part of the previous proceedings held before the Police Officers, the Magistrate, or the Criminal Judge, shall ever be made known to the Jury previously to the trial. But this prohibition is not to prevent confessions of prisoners from being read in evidence when duly proved to have been voluntarily given.

XXIV. After the conclusion of the evidence on both sides, the Presiding Judge on Circuit shall make such remarks to the Jury as circumstances may require respecting the nature of the evidence, and any points of law involved in the case, avoiding all matter calculated to bias the Jury.

XXV. The Jury shall then declare their verdict; or, if they desire to consult together privately before they deliver their verdict, they shall be permitted to retire to a convenient room adjoining the Court, where no person shall be allowed access to them; and they shall not be allowed to separate till they have given their verdict.

XXVI. The verdict shall always specify how many of the Jury concur in it, and how many not; the crime of which the prisoner is convicted; and, in cases of larceny, the value of the property stolen.

XXVII. Should the Judge of Circuit consider the verdict not sufficiently specific, either with reference to the value of property stolen, to any aggravation, or other peculiar circumstances charged in the indictment which, under the Regulations, or Mohammedan Law, would affect the sentence to be pronounced; or should he deem the verdict otherwise defective, objectionable, or contrary to the evidence, he shall remand the Jury to amend their verdict, first explaining his reasons for objecting to it. But if the Jury persist in their verdict, it shall be conclusive, unless a new trial shall be ordered under Section XXIX.

XXVIII. When the verdict is delivered, it shall be immediately recorded and read over to the Jury in open Court, that its correctness may be ascertained.

XXIX. If, in any case, the presiding Judge of Circuit shall be of opinion that the Jury have returned a verdict contrary to the evidence, and the Jury, after being remanded, persist in their verdict, the presiding Judge shall transmit an English translation of the proceeding held, or an authenticated copy of his own notes, accord-

ing as the depositions may or may not have been recorded, to the Foujdaree Udalut : and that Court shall have power, provided they concur in his opinion, to order a new trial. The verdict of the second Jury shall, in all cases, be final.

XXX. Unless three-fourths of the Jury concur in finding the Prisoner guilty, the verdict shall be accounted an acquittal.

XXXI. In all cases of acquittal the prisoner shall be immediately discharged, unless the presiding Judge of Circuit, under the general Regulations, should deem it proper to hold him to security for good behaviour ; or should be of opinion that a new trial is requisite for the ends of justice, in which case he must proceed as directed in Section XXIX.

XXXII. *First.* When a verdict of guilty is recorded, the presiding Judge shall either pass sentence himself, or refer or report the Trial to the Foujdaree Udalut according to the Regulation now in force, and the nature of the case. When he shall refer a Trial, he shall send to the Foujdaree Udalut an English translation of the Proceedings, or, with their sanction, an authenticated copy of his notes thereon. On trials so referred or reported, the Foujdaree Udalut shall pass sentence according to the Regulations now in force : provided that it shall not be competent to the Foujdaree Udalut to remit altogether the punishment of any crime of which a Prisoner has been found guilty by a Jury, except in the case specified in Section XXXIV.

Second. If, on the face of the proceedings or report, the Foujdaree Udalut shall see grounds to consider the conviction not warranted by the evidence, they shall have power to direct a new trial, the verdict in which shall be final.

XXXIII. It shall not be necessary for either Judge on Circuit or the Foujdaree Udalut to require the Futwa of their Law Officers as to the guilt of any Prisoner,—that being established by the verdict of the Jury.

XXXIV. Juries, after finding a Prisoner guilty, may recommend him to mercy, explaining their reasons for so doing ; and the presiding Judge, if he concurs in their recommendation, shall forward it without delay to the Foujdaree Udalut, together with a translation in English of the proceedings held in the case or an authenticated copy of his own notes ; and the Foujdaree Udalut shall have power to mitigate or remit altogether the punishment according as they shall judge right.

XXXV. The Governor in Council reserves to himself the power of granting a full pardon in any case whatsoever, on receiving a representation from the Foujdaree Udalut, or from the presiding Judge through that Court.

XXXVI. Jurors shall be protected in the independent and fearless exercise of their functions—one who shall maliciously assail,

threaten, or scandalize a Juror, because of his being concerned in any verdict, shall be subject to the penalty of a fine not exceeding 200 rupees, or imprisonment not exceeding one year, at the discretion of the Court of Circuit.

XXXVII. Jurors shall, in no case, either previously or subsequently to the verdict, receive any profit or advantage on account of the verdict they may give—any Juror receiving or covenanting for any reward on account of the verdict he may give, or any person attempting to corrupt or influence a Juror, shall be liable to be brought before the Court of Circuit, either at the prosecution of such Juror, or of the Government, and shall be liable, on conviction, to imprisonment for a year, and a fine of ten times the value or amount of the bribe offered, received, or covenanted for, to be commuted, if the fine is not paid, into imprisonment for a further period of not less than one, or more than five years.

OVID IN EXILE.

Translated from the Latin.

YES, I have fallen ! but the iron heart
That triumphs in my infamy, is sunk
Yet lower. Wretch ! did I provoke these taunts ?
Woes that from eyes not wont to weep might wring
The tears of pity, are thy song of joy,
Albeit obnoxious to the will of Fate.
Fear lest on thee, whom hitherto she charms
With flattering smile, inconstant Fortune frown !
Fear lest on thee, the vials of her wrath
Nemesis pour, scourging thine insolence !
For I can tell thee of a bold ingrate,
Who, though he might have succoured, did but laugh
To see the ship wreck'd, when the angry wave
Seized its occasion, and, oh ! just revenge !
Engulph'd him too. So he whom oft besought
The hungry outcast for a scanty meal
With fruitless prayer, by strange reverse anon
Himself turn'd mendicant, and was refus'd.
Clouds, winds, and shadows, with whatever else
Roves restless, and is fickle, and defies
Conjecture ;—these are typical of Fortune :
One moment smiling ; in the next her brows
With deeper shades than Erebus o'ercast,
She cultivates the constancy of change.

QUIVIS.

ON THE POWER POSSESSED BY CERTAIN INDIVIDUALS OF
SUPPORTING HEAT.*

THE Paris papers have lately given accounts of the experiments made by a Spaniard, Francisco Martinez, to prove the capability which he possesses of enduring intense heat. The most astonishing effort made by him was to remain in an oven heated to 110 degrees, (Reaumur,) and immediately upon coming out he plunged into a cold bath.

Now, though such experiments present a curious spectacle for the physiologist, yet there is nothing in them which the man of science cannot explain upon principle. The Spaniard in question exposed himself to a heat thirty degrees higher than hot water, and capable of roasting the flesh of animals in a very few minutes; but this must not be regarded as the first instance of such an experiment, as many are upon record.

A celebrated English physician remained eight minutes in a room heated to one hundred degrees, (Reaumur;) the heat was such that water boiled near him, and wax melted. In thirteen minutes he boiled a piece of beef at this temperature, having condensed the hot air upon the meat by means of a pair of bellows.

The rarification of the air, the very weak conducting power which it possesses, and its small capacity for caloric, explain why it is possible for a man, in the midst of so hot an atmosphere, to support a still greater heat. At the end of the last century, two scientific Frenchmen, Dahamel et Dutillet, were sent to Lavouche-foucault to make some inquiries relative to grain, and they saw two of the harvest girls who supported, during ten minutes, the heat of the oven in which they baked their fruit and meat. They were particular in ascertaining the heat of this oven, which was found to be 112 degrees, (Reaumur,) that is to say, thirty-two degrees above boiling water. The oven in which the Spaniard made his experiment at Tivoli was not so hot by two degrees as that where these two girls stopped. A very curious detail of the experiment witnessed by the two Frenchmen in question may be found in a work printed in Paris upon the degree of heat which man and animals can resist, by Dutillet. Thus the experiments at Tivoli, though certainly very astonishing, are not at all new. The celebrated Boer has stayed one minute in a sugar refinery, heated very nearly to one hundred degrees.

Dutillet made some experiments which prove that very few animals can support the heat which man may bear with impunity;

* From a work, written by a member of the French Academy of Sciences.

he, however, saw a dog which stayed in a room at ninety-five degrees during several minutes. The principal fact proved by Dutillet is, that the ill-effects produced by the heat of the air are less the result of its introduction into the chest, than its contact with the skin. Thus animals whose skins were covered resisted the burning air much better than those exposed to it entirely. This being the case, the Spaniard acted very wisely in wrapping up his head, and wearing flannel trowsers. Flannel is a very bad conductor of heat, and the exhibitor obviated through its medium the greatest difficulties to which his experiment exposed him.

We repeat, it is principally by its action upon the skin, and its influence upon the nerves producing sensibility, that fire becomes hurtful. This remark may serve to explain a part of the miracles said to have been performed by Saint-Medard. The persons who were operated upon, termed *convulsionists*, seemed in a perfect state of torpor, while exposed to fire. In the old and scarce work of Carré de Montgeron, there is a certificate signed by many ocular witnesses, relative to the Protestants converted by the miracles of Saint-Medard. Among them are Arnaud Arouet, treasurer of the Chamber of Accounts, the brother of Voltaire, and Lord Edward de Purth. These witnesses affirm that they saw a *convulsionist*, named Sonet, who was held thirty-six minutes over a fire, during which time fifteen large logs of wood were reduced to ashes; but so little effect did the flames have upon him that he indulged in nap during the whole operation! This is apathy with a vengeance! What will the 'march of intellect' men say to this? It is a pity that the *convulsionists* did not proceed with their experiments, for the chances are, that by this time, with the aid of the 'march' in question, people would have had no fear of being burnt, either here or hereafter. To conclude, we may affirm, that the Spaniard's experiment, and the other instances adduced of the capability of supporting a high temperature, have nothing astonishing in them, and may be easily explained by persons who have deeply studied the circumstances connected with the power of nature.

FRAGMENT.

Let not my life be like the stagnant lake,
 For ever sleeping in the sunny beam :
 I ask it not—no, rather let it make
 A course like that of some fair mountain stream,
 Now rushing on its way with many a beam
 Of sunny hope, now gliding through the mead
 Of verdant joy, and now, if Heaven deem
 More useful, through the lowly valley's shade ;—
 Though it be lost to sight, it still may verdure aid.

INDIAN REVENUE AND TERRITORIAL DEBT.

We submit to the examination of the reader the following Tables, containing proofs of these two striking facts—namely, that the charges of governing India have been, in one single year only, nearly five millions sterling more than the revenues in the same period; and that the Total Debt of the India Company, in India itself, is forty-three millions sterling :

An Account of the Revenues and Charges of India, in each of two Years ending 30th April, 1826, and 30th April, 1827, (the last Year on Estimate,) showing the Annual Surplus of Revenue or Charge after the Payment of Territorial Charges in England.

REVENUES.	Actual. 1825-26.	Estimate. 1826-27.
Bengal	£13,119,658	£14,743,600
Madras	5,714,915	5,515,179
Bombay	2,262,393	2,480,231
Prince of Wales' Island	31,422	43,340
Total	21,128,388	22,782,350
Charges	24,060,134	22,658,719
Net Revenues in India		123,631
Net Charges in India	2,931,766	—

CHARGES.	Actual. 1825-26.	Estimate. 1826-27.
Bengal	£12,634,516	£11,092,410
Madras	5,707,383	5,556,199
Bombay	4,007,020	4,046,459
Prince of Wales' Island	135,294	84,532
Total	22,484,213	20,779,600
Interest on Debts	1,575,941	1,879,119
Total Charges and Interest	24,060,154	22,658,719
Expense of St. Helena	110,413	114,500
Political charges paid in England, including Invoice Amount of Territorial Stores consigned to India. }	£ 1,817,232	2,429,894
Grand Total Charges	25,987,799	25,203,113
Revenues	21,128,388	22,782,350
Surplus Revenue	—	—
Surplus Charge	4,859,411	2,420,763

East India House,
17th June, 1828. }

(Errors excepted.)

JAMES C. MELVILL,
Audr. of India Accots.

THOS. G. LLOYD, Acct. Gen.

as regards Political Charges paid in England.

Amount of the Territorial Debt owing by the East India Company at their several Presidencies in the East Indies, on 30th April, 1826; and according to the latest Accounts.

	BENGAL.	MADRAS.	BOMBAY.	TOTAL.
1826. Debts at 4 per. Cent.	£307,539	226,137	£211,797	545,473
Do. . . 5 . Do.	17,240,912	204,138		17,445,050
Do. . . 6 . Do.	10,851,273	2,809,285	163,665	13,824,223
Do. . . 8 . Do.		408,649	194,820	603,468
Do. . . 10 . Do.	2,390			2,390
Treasury Notes bearing Interest at $3\frac{1}{2}$ pie per cent. per diem. . . }	441,612			441,612
Total Debts bearing Interest.	28,843,726	3,448,203	570,282	32,862,211
Debts not bearing Interest.	7,230,281	1,105,435	596,551	8,932,267
Total Debts in India.	36,074,007	4,553,638	1,166,833	41,794,478
	Quick Stock, 31 Jan. 1827.	Quick Stock, 30 April 1827.	Quick Stock, 30 April 1827.	
1827. Debts at 4 per Cent.	£252,926	£24,354	£140,593	£417,873
Do. . . 5 . Do.	18,868,680	70,430		18,939,110
Do. . . 6 . Do.	10,804,058	2,855,910	287,865	13,947,833
Do. . . 8 . Do.		377,273	226,470	603,743
Do. . . 10 . Do.				2,390
Treasury Notes bearing Interest at $3\frac{1}{2}$ pie per cent. per diem. . . }	2,390			2,390
	2,494			2,494
Total Debts bearing Interest.	29,930,548	3,327,967	654,928	33,913,443
Debts not bearing Interest.	7,124,896	1,052,612	585,409	8,762,917
Total Debts in India.	37,055,444	4,380,579	1,240,337	42,676,360

East India House,
17th June, 1828.

(Errors excepted.) JAMES C. MELVILL.
Audr. of India Accts.

WOMAN.

When on the cruel misfortune's towers,
And every hope is broken to the breast,
How sweet the sighs that from the heart pour,
To give the sad heart some repose.

If sorrow's shades around us close—
If toss'd on life's tempestuous sea,
Where can we hope to find repose,
Where, lovely woman, but in thee?

Then fill the cup with sparkling wine—
To woman let the toast be given;
For, gentle spirit, it is thine
To soothe the heart by anguish riven.

XANTIPPE.

SUTTEE AT BANGALORE.

(Communicated from India by an Eye-Witness.)

'All that was hers, in the ring happier day,
Crushed by the ruthless hand of destiny,
Her hours, bereft of all, cheerless, alone,
Her sun of life that once so bright had shone,
Affection, friendship, love, for ever fled,
He who was hers, now numbered with the dead.'

FEMALE immolation, though rare in the Peninsula, is still frequent in the northern parts of India. The barbarous custom of imposing it as a voluntary duty on women to sacrifice themselves on the funeral pile of their husbands is still looked upon as a heroic act, and the unfortunate sufferer is goaded on to the fatal deed by a belief that she is performing a work that will render her name immortal, and make her for ever happy.

The generality of writers on this subject, content themselves with giving us an account of the sacrifice, or of a few of the attendant incidents: they seldom mention the causes or motives which lead to it. Let us consider the situation of the females of those castes amongst whom this system exists, and we shall in some degree cease to wonder that it still prevails. The happiest lot that can befall a woman in India, is to die in the married state; their shasters and other religious books strongly inculcate this. Widows are held in very low estimation, especially if they are without children: they are spurned by all; and the term *munda*, or *shaven-head*, is applied to them as a reproach. They can wear no ornaments, must appear clothed in the meanest apparel, are excluded from every ceremony, (indeed their appearance is even considered ominous of evil,) and are barely allowed a scanty subsistence. The females are void of instruction, ignorant and uneducated from their infancy, except in those ceremonies of their religion which instil into their minds an idea that those who thus devote themselves to destruction, pave their way to endless felicity—the devotee in a future state partakes of a glorious bliss; and she, by thus suffering, she has the merit of elevating to future honours her departed husband, and many future generations of her posterity and hers.

On minds thus reared, immolation is readily made, the terror of suffering from want, of being neglected in her relations, of losing the rank she may have attained in the domestic circle, or of forming some connection that might prove ruinous to her future state, have a powerful influence, and tend materially to incite those daughters of delusion to their infatuated end.

The following extracts from a work entitled 'The duties of Faithful Women and Widows,' may in some degree account for the

zeal we see displayed on the occasion, by the votaries, particularly if we bear in mind that those, and thousands of a similar import, are the only instructions communicated to the females of India from their infant days.

‘ Let those women not to be widowed, good wives, adorned with collyricum, holding clarified butter, consign themselves to the fire; immortal, not childless nor husbandless,—excellent; let them pass into fire whose original element is water. Let these wives, pure and beautiful, commit themselves to the fire with their husband’s corpse.

‘ The faithful wife who commits herself to the flames with her husband’s corpse, shall equal Arundhati, and reside for ever in the glory of Swarga.

‘ Accompanying her husband, she shall reside so long in Swarga, as are the thirty-five millions of hairs on the human body.

‘ As the snake-catchers forcibly drag the serpent from his earth, so, bearing her husband from hell, with him she shall enjoy the delights of heaven, while fourteen Indras reign. Though her husband had killed a Brahmin, aye, broken the ties of gratitude, or murdered his friend, she expiates all his crimes.

‘ While the pile is preparing, tell the faithful wife of the greatest duty of the woman; she is loyal, true, and pure, who burns herself with her husband’s corpse. Hearing this, fortified in her resolution, and full of affection, she completes the Pitrimheda Yaga, and ascends to Swarga; though, on the death of her husband, if the widow commit not her body to the flames with his, she is ever after to live as Bramachari.

‘ The use of Tambuli dress, and feeding from vessels of tutargue, is forbid to the Yati, the Bramachari, and the Ruiderni.

‘ The widow shall never exceed one meal a day, nor sleep on a bed: if she does so, her husband falls from Swarga. The widow’s diet shall be of the coarsest and most simple food, and daily shall she offer the Tarpana of Cussa and water.

‘ If the widow, on approaching the pile, regretting life, recede from her resolution, she is for ever defiled, accursed, and lost.

‘ The virtuous, faithful, and affectionate widow, she whose sympathy feels for the pains and joys of her husband, who mourns and pines in his absence, who dies when he dies, is a good, a loyal, and a loving wife, and shall in a future world be honoured and esteemed, and her memory retained in everlasting remembrance.

‘ Always revere a loyal wife as you would venerate the Devastasi; for by her eminent virtues the empire of the prince may be extended over all the boundaries of the three worlds. Though the husband died unhappy by the folly or disobedience of his wife, yet, if she,

from motives of pure love, from disgust of this world, from a sincere desire and regard for her deceased lord; or from fear of living unprotected and in dishonour, commit her body to the flames with that of her deceased protector, she is entitled to everlasting glory, veneration, and esteem. Should the husband die on any journey, or absent from his house, let the widow, holding his sandals, or any other article of his dress, to her breast, commit her body to the consuming element of fire, and so ascend to future endless bliss.

Sacrifices of this nature, we believe, are not frequent in Mysore; but one took place in the vicinity of this station, on the 18th instant. Annautia, aged thirty-nine years, a Brahmin of Bangalore Pettah, died on the night of the 17th, leaving a wife, named Lutchemah. They had no family, nor had the woman any other relation in existence; the man had a brother and sister, who assisted, or rather acted conspicuous parts, at the ceremony hereafter described. Early on the morning of the 18th, the woman having declared her determination of sacrificing herself with the body of her husband, and a wealthy Native having come forward and contributed liberally towards defraying the expenses, preparations were made for it, on a secluded spot, lying to the west of the Pettah; where, in the centre of a small plain, a place of about twelve feet square was marked out, and four large posts, each ten feet high, placed at the corners; on the top of these was erected a pundall, or kind of scaffold, of old dry wood; this formed the frame of the piles. A considerable deal of well-dried firewood, a large heap of braties, or dried cow-dung, and various other combustible materials, were then placed within the square, arranged in tiers, so as to burn briskly when set fire to. The height of the materials thus collected was about four feet. On the top of these were spread a few bundles of dry straw; and the scaffold on the top was also covered, to the height of two feet, with dried firewood and other combustibles. These were the principal preparations at the fatal spot, and were completed by twelve o'clock. The house of the deceased was surrounded by a concourse of Natives, amongst whom the number of elderly females predominated. Few Europeans were present, as no notice of the ceremony taking place had reached the Cantonment; two of the Missionaries, however, and three or four other individuals, attended. Some of them, on passing the house of the deceased, halted, when an old grey-headed Brahmin beckoned them to approach the dwelling, which they did. The body lay on a bier, near the entrance, and the female sat beside it, surrounded by a crowd of persons. She rose on seeing the Europeans, and saluted them. She was clothed in a bright yellow dress, similar to that usually worn by Brahmin women; the back part of her head was stuck full of yellow flowers in wreaths, interwoven with her long black hair. She appeared to be about twenty-eight or thirty years of age, rather stoutly made, of a dark copper colour, and not unbecomely in her countenance. The utmost

composure was discernible in her looks; and, on being asked by a gentleman, (for no obstruction was made to any one communicating with her,) if she was desirous of sacrificing herself, if it was voluntary, and if she knew what she was about, her reply was full of energy and meaning. 'My husband,' said she, 'while he lived, was kind and affectionate to me; at his death, I promised him this proof of my regard. Were I to live I should be looked upon as a burden to my family; I should be allowed but one scanty meal a day; I should be the sport of every oppressor, and subject to every suspicion. Should I be overcome, my good name would be forever blasted, and my hopes hereafter annihilated: by sacrificing myself now, I die happy; my memory will be honoured, and everlasting happiness await me after death; this life is nought to me—my lord and master to me was all.

At twelve o'clock, the procession left the house; the brother of the deceased taking the lead, bearing a small vessel, containing fire, followed by the women and others of the family; in the rear was the corpse, borne on a bier by four men. No music, or other noise, was employed; and, considering the novelty of the scene, but few Natives, comparatively speaking, attended. The distance from the house to the spot was about a mile, which the female walked at rather a smart pace. On reaching the ground, the two Missionaries had some conversation with the woman, and endeavoured to dissuade her from her purpose; but she answered as before: indeed, she seemed resolutely bent on it; she viewed the pile with a look of exultation, and, having surveyed all the preparations, took her seat by the dead body, which had been laid down at a short distance; here she remained for upwards of an hour, surrounded by a host of old gray-headed Brahmins of both sexes, performing numerous ceremonies, apparently void of either meaning or interest; the body of her husband was then brought to the side of the pile, and with little to do placed upon it, above the dry straw. A few pots or chatties of oil and gee were then poured on the straw and wood, mostly around the dead body. The woman, after walking once round the pile, without any assistance, mounted it with agility, by clambering up the side, amidst the shouts of the assembled spectators. After moving about a little, and crossing from one side of the body to the other, she took her seat on the right side, and began removing the ornaments from her ears and nose, which she distributed among her friends. She also threw some handfuls of flowers from her head amongst the bye-standers, who seized them with avidity. The time occupied in adjusting these matters, after ascending the pile, was about twenty-five minutes. She then extended her right arm under the neck of the deceased, and with much composure stretched herself beside the body, adjusting the hair of her head and her clothes. On her lying down, a considerable quantity of wood, &c., was expeditiously heaped on the two bodies. At this

moment there was a general shout of applause from the assembled multitude; clapping of hands, and other tokens of satisfaction, arose from all around. From five to seven minutes elapsed, in adjusting all, and during this period not a motion could be perceived, nor a hush heard from the unfortunate female; by those close at hand she was heard twice to repeat the word 'Marisah' (My God.) The lighted matches were then applied to various parts of the pile. The first person, however, that set fire to it, was the brother of the husband, and he seemed to exult in the act; in his mind, doubtless, he had helped his relations to a better world. At the same moment, the fire was applied to the lower part; the upper scaffold was also lighted; and the cords supporting it at each corner cut, so as to let it come down (which it did with a tremendous crash) on the victim. This alone would put an end to the sufferings of the female, had suffocation from the smoke not previously done so. For a little time the flames spread slowly; but, in ten or twelve minutes, a bright, clear flame enveloped the whole, and little more was to be seen until some hours after, when, all being nearly reduced to ashes, the bones of the two were carefully collected, for the purpose of being deposited in some hallowed stream; thus finishing a ceremony at which every feeling mind must revolt, and sentiments of horror be awakened. Innumerable instances, however, occur upon similar occasions, of a much more diabolical nature than the foregoing. Force, and the use of stimulating drugs, are often resorted to, to compel the unfortunate, half-inanimate victim, to undergo the cruel sacrifice; but nothing of this nature was the case here.

It is well known that the sanction of Government is given to Suttees; or rather, that they are not interdicted, on the fundamental principles by which the administration of the country is conducted, viz., free toleration in religious matters. Wisdom or policy may adopt that principle, but humanity would grasp at a wider field in the cause, were she not restrained; and it ought ever to be remembered, that the principle, although sanctioned, is not enjoined, by any of the commentaries upon the sacred laws of the Hindoos. It is, however, to be hoped that the day is at hand when the Legislature will inquire whether policy requires the toleration of the right; and, if it does, whether some measures may not be adopted to prevent a poor female being thus brutally sacrificed, at a time when her judgment is impaired from natural or unnatural causes, or infatuated zeal, without infringing upon the principles of free toleration.

'Ye band of senators, whose suffrage sways
 Britannia's realms, whom either Ind obeys,
 Who right the injured, and protect the brave,
 Stretch your strong arm, for you've the power to save.'

Bangalore, Dec. 24, 1827.

W. D. D.

ENGLISH VERSION OF A SONG OR HYMN SUNG BY A HINDOO
WOMAN, ON THE POINT OF BEING BURNED ON THE
PILE WITH HER HUSBAND'S BODY.

HASTE, haste ! prepare the sacred pile,
What, though the flames my form consume
In my loved husband's arms I'll smile.
And joyful meet so blest a doom,
With him a life of love I've past,
With him a death of love I'll die ;
On his cold corpse my body cast,
In his dear arms I pain defy.
O, when he lived, with throbs of joy,
I saw love sparkle in his eyes ;
Nought could our happiness destroy,
While soft we breathed love's tender sighs.
Endearing smiles, and kindest deeds,
Still made us bless each happy day ;
But ah ! no joy in life succeeds
To me, if he be torn away.
No more to gaze on his lov'd charms,
To be no more his faithful care ;
The object of his fond alarms,
The partner of his frugal fare.
Eldering thought ! with joy I mount
The sacred pile for me prepar'd ;
I joyful die on his account,
And Brahma shall my zeal reward.
In the fair form of spotless doves,*
Should Brahma choose, we still may live,
Wander o'er-joyed through verdant groves,
And in new beauteous shapes revive.
Then light the pile, dissolve this frame
Of human woe, of human care :
Since still our souls shall be the same,
On wings of love we'll mount in air.
She said,—and strewing flowers around,
Happy as on her bridal day,
She heard the last, the fatal sound,
Which warned her Brahma to obey.
Then mounting on the funeral pile,
With looks serene she welcom'd death,
Embrac'd her husband with a smile,
And in his arms resign'd her breath.

* As the Hindoos believe in the doctrine of the metempsychosis, the expectation of the faithful sufferer's being turned into a dove with the husband is naturally indulged.

SUGGESTIONS AS TO THE BENEFITS OF A REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT AT THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

We have more than once endeavoured to call the attention of our readers to the all-important subject of a Representative Assembly. We have laid before them the claim which this colony undeniably possesses, to that inalienable right of British subjects, and we have laid before them the prospect which opens upon them under the present ministry, of immediately obtaining that first of political blessings.

It is now our duty to point out to them one of the many benefits likely to be derived from it. It would tend to correct the apathy which so generally prevails—it would, as will trial by jury, remind every man that he is a member of the state—that he is indebted to the state for the protection of his liberty, his property, and his life; that he has a right to inquire into, and to be informed of, the acts of the Government, and that he is even vested by the Constitution with the power and high privilege of taking a share, by his representative, in enacting the laws, and of contributing in his own person, as a juryman, to administer them. It would, in fact, diffuse public spirit—it would give soul and animation to a community, which seems scarcely half alive to any question of general interest.

We are led to offer these remarks by what has come to our knowledge respecting some public societies and institutions. A horticultural society was formed here some time ago: meetings of the committee are appointed, and they cannot muster a quorum. Two or three successive weeks pass away, and the managing committee of the English Church do not assemble in sufficient number to enable the few regular members to proceed to business. If gentlemen find it impossible, or extremely difficult, to discharge such public duties, in one thing at least they may, and they ought to be prompt, namely, in resigning.

Again: we suggested, some time since, the expediency of aiding by subscription the funds of the public library, and of extending its plan, so as to embrace other objects of great utility. The Government, by deferring the appointment of trustees, seem to allow the public time to make an effort, if they be so disposed. It is true, we believe, that the Committee of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge have resolved to establish a lending library; but that is the only symptom exhibited of a desire to improve the poor, by diffusing knowledge amongst them.

We learn that the Museum has been closed for some time, and we fear that this promising institution is likely to share the fate of the Botanic Garden, once the glory of the Cape, unless a legislative assembly be appointed in time, or some unhopd for exertion of public spirit save from utter destruction every remaining vestige of literature and science.—*The Colonist*, Feb. 21, 1828.

MINERALOGICAL LECTURES IN CALCUTTA.

The first lecture was given by Mr. Ross, on Tuesday evening, December 4, 1828, and, we were happy to observe, was well attended. The lecture was chiefly introductory, in which, after adverting to the interest and importance of the study of Mineralogy, not only as a distinct branch of study, but in connection with Geology, the lecturer proceeded to explain the elementary principles of the science, and the distinguishing characteristics of mineral substances.

These, which came under the head of external or physical characters, were thus enumerated: form, fracture, frangibility, hardness, transparency, lustre, colour, flexibility, elasticity, double refraction, touch, taste, odour, streak, powder, adhesion to the tongue, magnetism, electricity, phosphor essence, specific gravity, and the relative conducting powers of minerals in regard to caloric or coldness. Each of these properties was then made the subject of detailed description, and illustrated by appropriate specimens. In the first division, form or structure, the different kinds of crystals were described, the parallelopiped, octohedron, tetrahedron, hexahedral prism, rhomboidal dodecahedron, and pyramidal dodecahedron. These are known as the primitive crystals, and are independent of the portion, known as the integrant molecule, which occurs in three forms, the parallel lopiped, triangular prism, and tetrahedron. The instruments for measuring the angles of crystals were then described, and the various modifications of the primary forms explained; besides the models of the aggregates exhibited, were some fine specimens of rock crystal and one specimen of fluor spar, was shown in the illustration of the aggregation of crystals, which afforded as regular a gradation of aggregated cubes, forming an octohedron, as if it had been artificially constructed for the occasion.

On the last-named quality, or coldness, the lecturer made an observation, that may be of some interest to our fair readers. This property is considered as one means of distinguishing true from artificial gems. On applying each to either side of the tip of the tongue, simultaneously, the genuine stone will feel cold, whilst no such effect is sensible from a piece of coloured glass.

Amongst the most curious specimens of minerals exhibited, were one of Icelandic spar, illustrative of double refraction, one of the micaceous oxide of Uranium, a beautiful mineral, showing lamellar distinct concretions; a curious example of fungiform calc tufa, an instance of the saddle-shaped crystallisation in Spathose iron ore, a specimen of stalactitic manganese, and one of the brilliant specular iron ore of Elba.

To estimate these properly, however, they should be seen by daylight, as the light of lamps and candles is very unfavourable to the precise appreciation of delicate forms and colours.—*Gov. Gazette.*

MINUTES OF RESPECT TO MR. ELPHINSTONE.

HAVING expressed, on more than one occasion, our frank and sincere opinion of the general defects of Mr. Elphinstone's character and administration, we as readily embrace the opportunity that presents itself of giving the opinions of others, though, perhaps, under more doubtful circumstances, as to his character and government; and, accordingly, we give place in our pages to the following report of proceedings at Bombay, for which we had not room in our last :

Literary Society.

The anniversary meeting of the Literary Society of Bombay, was held at its rooms on the 26th of December, 1827.

PRESENT,

J. Wedderburn, Esq., Vice-President.

W. Newnham, Esq.	Lieut. Col. Hough,
Hill Morgan, M.D.	Charles Norris, Esq.
Captain Miller,	B. Noton, Esq.
James Williams, Esq.	J. Ritchie, Esq.
T. Buchanan, Esq.	J. M'Adam, Esq.
J. Howison, Esq.	G. Noton, Esq.
R. K. Arbuthnot, Esq.	Captain G. R. Jarvis,
G. Smyttan, Esq.	R. C. Money, Esq.
J. Strachan, M.D.	Rev. Thomas Carr,
F. Sheppee, Esq.	J. Mill, Esq.
Captain Simpson,	Lieut. G. S. B. Brown,

Lieut. Colonel V. Kennedy, Secretary.

The usual business having been transacted, the Secretary addressed the meeting as follows :—

Mr. Vice-President and Gentlemen,

As you have all so lately participated in presenting to the Honourable Mountstuart Elphinstone, on his resignation of this Government, those tributes of regret and applause to which his distinguished and pre-eminent merits so justly entitled him, it becomes unnecessary to intimate, that, in consequence of his departure, the situation of President of this Society has become vacant. Previously, however, to proceeding to the election of his successor, permit me to recall to your attention the important benefits which not only this Society, but Oriental Literature in general, has derived from that cultivation and promotion of literary pursuits, with which he delighted to solace the few hours that he could abstract from the multiplied avocations of official business. But I should have been most happy, had some person much better qualified than I am to speak on such a subject, undertaken to submit it to your notice, as I am too well aware that I can but inadequately convey even an imperfect notion of the extensive conversancy with literature for which Mr. Elphinstone was so eminently distinguished, and of that

constant solicitude and liberality with which he encouraged every means that could tend to promote its general and beneficial diffusion.

‘It must at the same time be admitted, that, from a singularly diffident and retiring disposition, which is so often the accompaniment and ornament of real ability, neither our labours have been animated by those discourses, nor our transactions enriched with those memoirs, which Mr. Elphinstone was so competent to compose. For, if not a profound classical scholar, he was sufficiently master of the Greek and Latin languages to enable him to appreciate and enjoy the matchless works of antiquity; and with the modern literature of his own country, France, and Italy, he was intimately acquainted. But his active life and public duties restricted his knowledge of the numerous languages of Asia to a conversancy with Persian, and prevented him from prosecuting, even in that language, the study of Oriental learning, by applying to its original sources; yet his information on all subjects connected with it, and particularly with the civil and political history of Persia and India, was most extensive. That cause, perhaps, united to the correct and elegant taste which he had derived from nature, but which he had improved and sedulously cultivated by the perusal of the best ancient and modern authors, rendered him a rather too severe critic of Oriental composition. He denied not, indeed, that its occasional beauties deserved every praise; but he was inclined to think that these could not compensate for its numerous imperfections. This opinion, however, applied merely to the critical merits of Eastern literature; for he evinced, by many enlightened acts, his firm conviction that the Government of this country could not be conducted efficiently and prosperously for many years without adapting it, as far as the real interests of the people would admit, to their long-established and deeply-rooted habits and prejudices; and hence it was, that, in order to acquire an accurate knowledge of their customs, usages, and laws, he encouraged, with the utmost munificence, the study of the Native languages and literature.

‘But, from his estimation of the Native character, which he must have viewed in its most unfavourable light during his official intercourse with the late Peishwah,—whose conduct, and that of his Ministers, during the last six years of his government, was so marked with duplicity and disregard of every principle of honour and rectitude,—Mr. Elphinstone was persuaded that mental and moral improvement were indispensable for securing the real prosperity of this country, and for enabling the people to understand and appreciate that impartiality, integrity, and justice, which distinguish the British Government. Education, therefore, appeared to his enlightened views the most safe and efficient means for improving the Native mind, and rendering the people eventually qualified for a participation in the Government of their own country; and Mr.

Elphinstone, therefore, encouraged, with the most liberal support, the establishment and exertions of the Native Education Society, which promise to be attended with such beneficial results. Hence, the future consequences which may be produced by thus promoting the cultivation of Western and Eastern literature in this country, becomes a subject of the most interesting speculation. For, though the advancement which the Natives may attain is still problematical, it cannot be denied that they possess the greatest aptitude for instruction; and it will be obvious, that the more intimately acquainted with them British gentlemen may become, the more capable will they be of ascertaining correctly the motives and principles of conduct which actuate the present Hindoo, and of penetrating into the darkest recesses of that antique, rich, and copious mine of Sanscrit learning, which has been hitherto so little explored.

‘It was to assist in the attainment of objects of such importance, that Mr. Elphinstone was always most anxious to promote the interests of this Society, and that he unceasingly endeavoured to incite every person with whom he was acquainted, to favour it with contributions. If, therefore, six years have elapsed without our having been able to publish another volume of our Transactions, this dearth of communications would not have occurred, had it been in the power of the President to have prevented it. But the limited extent of this Presidency, the lamented death or regretted departure to Europe of some of our most distinguished members, and the difficulty of literary pursuits in this country, present causes fully sufficient for explaining this suspension, which I trust is merely temporary, of the publication of volumes similar to those which have been already honoured with the approbation of the public.

‘It must, however, appear surprising, that, amidst the numerous objects so fully deserving of investigation which surround us, so few persons are inclined to devote themselves to some one of those various studies, for the cultivation of which this country seems to afford the greatest incitements; and still more so, that, of such gentlemen as are engaged in these pursuits, scarcely any one appears inclined to avail himself of our Transactions, for the purpose of communicating to the public the result of his researches. But there is one obstacle to literary exertion in this country, which does not seem to have been hitherto duly appreciated—I mean the indispensable necessity of acquiring the vernacular dialect of the province in which such studies are pursued. For the antiquarian, the historian, and even the botanist, the physician, or the mineralogist, will find it difficult, without such a knowledge, to conduct his inquiries; and this defect will render his conclusions both unsatisfactory, and but little entitled to have reliance placed upon them. If, also, the object of research be Mohammedan literature, no considerable progress in it could be attained without a competent conversant.

sance with the Persian and Arabic languages; nor could the pursuit of Hindoo learning be prosecuted with any success without the acquisition of Sanscrit. The study, however, of languages is to many persons so extremely irksome as to deter them from attempting to approach, by so rugged a path, that portal which would introduce them into so novel a scene, abounding in diversified objects of curiosity and instruction. But to facilitate this approach, Mr. Elphinstone has encouraged and promoted, by the enlightened liberality of the Government over which he presided, the compilation and publication of Grammars and Dictionaries of the Maratha and Gurjati languages, which, to the disgrace of this Presidency, had remained so long neglected, and also the publication of several works composed in them. These languages, it is true, have no intrinsic merit, for they are merely colloquial, and possess no valuable works; but they are the mother tongue of the people who are placed under this Government; and in both the Maratha and Gurjati provinces, a knowledge of Hindoostanee is by no means generally prevalent. In this part of India, therefore, it will be evident how impossible it must be for any person to pursue effectually any object of research without a knowledge of one, or perhaps both, of these vernacular dialects, in order to put him in possession of a medium of communication between himself and those from whom he may require information.

But there are many gentlemen perfectly capable of favouring the Society with interesting and valuable contributions; and it is, therefore, to be hoped, that they will conquer that amiable diffidence which alone prevents them from assisting to render the institutions of this Society useful to the public. For in such papers the perfect style of a writer accustomed to composition is not expected; and every member or contributor may be certain, that the Committee of Papers will not admit into the Transactions any memoir which is undeserving of publication. Such contributions, however, will be always received with indulgence; and, though they may remain unpublished, the Society will be equally indebted to the gentlemen by whom they are furnished, and their subject also may not improbably give rise to some interesting discussions. I am induced to touch upon this point, because the expectation thus expressed, is now more likely to be accomplished in consequence of the zeal to acquire a knowledge of the Native languages and literature, which the enlightened measures and discriminating patronage of Mr. Elphinstone have, from the commencement of his government, excited amongst the gentlemen of the Civil Service, the beneficial effects of which have been already displayed by the publication of several important works; and though the selection of those has been directed by the laudable desire of ameliorating the administration of justice, still it may be confidently anticipated, that the zeal which has been awakened will not be confined to one subject, and that the

difference of dispositions will naturally lead to a difference of pursuits. It is not, however, by his public measures, or private exertions alone, that Mr. Elphinstone has thus successfully contributed to the promotion of literature; for his invaluable account of the 'Embassy to Cabul' will ever remain a memorial, and I hope not the only memorial, of his eminent literary qualifications; and, from the public applause which it has so justly received, it must also afford a most inciting assurance, that neither an active life nor official business do necessarily prevent the prosecution of intellectual pursuits. Occupied, indeed, as Mr. Elphinstone always seemed to be, either in the discharge of his numerous and important public duties, or in maintaining the intercourse of private life with that urbanity and engaging friendliness for which he was so peculiarly distinguished, these words of Catullus to Crassus, in Cicero's treatise 'De Oratore,' became strikingly applicable to the extent of acquirements displayed in Mr. Elphinstone's conversation:—*'Sed tamen, cum omnes, gradus ætatis recordor tuæ, cumque vitam tuam ac studia considero: neque, quo tempore ista dediceris, video, nec magnopere te istis studiis, hominibus, liberis, intelligo, deditum. Neque tamen possum statuere, utrum magis mirer, te illa, quæ mihi persuades maxima esse adjumenta, potuisse in tuis tantis occupationibus perdiscere, an, si non potueris, posse isto modo dicere.'* It was, therefore, to that instructive intercourse, to that courtesy with which Mr. Elphinstone listened to those with whom he conversed, to that unassuming and engaging manner with which he communicated the copious and diversified stores of his own knowledge, and to the bright example of his literary excellence, that is principally to be ascribed the more general diffusion of a literary taste throughout this Presidency. For it was impossible to be admitted into the society of so highly talented an individual without admiring his commanding abilities, and being sensible that literature most eminently contributed to adorn his richly cultivated mind. But what man admires he wishes to imitate; and though it is not likely that any person could entertain even the slightest expectation of emulating the numerous accomplishments of Mr. Elphinstone, he might still be permitted to hope, that, by cultivating his own mind, he might render himself more worthy of the notice with which Mr. Elphinstone honoured him.

'That such was actually the case, I may confidently appeal to the Gentlemen present to attest; and to them, also, are well known the subjects to which I have now ventured to advert, in a manner so very inadequate to their importance. To prolong these imperfect remarks must be unnecessary; for I am persuaded that every member will be of opinion that the Society ought to testify the high sense which it entertains of Mr. Elphinstone's literary excellence, of his constant solicitude to promote the diffusion of literature and knowledge, and of the grateful remembrance which the

Tributes of Respect to Mr. Elphinstone.

Society will ever preserve of his unceasing interest in the furtherance of the objects of its institution, by some permanent memorial, which shall not only perpetuate his memory, but also incite the beholder to imitate, in the cultivation of his own mind, so illustrious an example. I beg leave, in consequence, to propose that Mr. Elphinstone be requested to sit for his bust on his arrival in England, in order that it may be placed in the rooms of the Literary Society of Bombay.

This proposition having been seconded by J. Wedderburn, Esq., was unanimously adopted.

It was then resolved, on the motion of J. Wedderburn, Esq., seconded by J. M'Adam, Esq., that, in order to testify the unanimous concurrence of the Society in the sentiments expressed in the address just delivered, the President be solicited to transmit a copy of it, accompanied by a copy of this resolution, to the late President, and to request that he will be pleased to comply with the wishes of the Society; and farther, that this address be printed in the next volume of the Society's Transactions.

It was next resolved, on the motion of Mr. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. Newnham, that Major-General the Honourable Sir John Malcolm be elected President of the Society, in the place of the Honourable Mounstuart Elphinstone.

It was further resolved, on the motion of B. Norton, Esq., seconded by J. Ritchie, Esq., that a deputation, consisting of J. Wedderburn, Esq., T. Buchanan, Esq., W. Newnham, Esq., H. Morgan, M.D., Lieutenant-Colonel Kennedy, and the Secretary, do wait upon Sir John Malcolm, and solicit that he will be pleased to do the Society the honour of becoming its President.

Lieutenant-Colonel Kennedy having here begged leave to resign the situation of Secretary to the Society and its two Committees, it was resolved, on the motion of W. Newnham, Esq., seconded by the Rev. T. Carr, that the unanimous thanks of the Society be conveyed to Lieutenant-Colonel Kennedy for the very great benefits which the Society has derived, during the period that he has held the situation of Secretary, from his assiduous zeal, extensive bibliographical knowledge, and literary abilities.

The Meeting then proceeded to elect the following Gentlemen office-bearers and members of Committees for the ensuing year :

VICE-PRESIDENTS.

The Hon. Sir E. West, Kt.

Lieutenant-Colonel Vans Kennedy.

The Hon. Sir C. H. Chamber, Kt.

Reverend Thomas Carr.

J. Wedderburn, Esq.

Captain George Ritso Jervis, Secretary.

Messrs. Forbes and Co., Treasurers.

Can I Forget Thee?

COMMITTEE OF PAPERS.

The President and Vice-Presidents.

W. H. Wathen, Esq. J. M'Adam, Esq.
G. Norton, Esq. A. Ferrier, Esq.
J. Howison, Esq.

Captain G. R. Jervis, Secretary.

Committee for the Superintendence of the Library, Museum, and Accounts.

Lieutenant Colonel V. Kennedy, President.

J. Wedderburn, Esq. C. Norris, Esq.
B. Noton, Esq. J. M'Adam, Esq.
J. Howison, Esq. G. Smyttan, Esq.

Captain G. R. Jervis, Secretary.

The Deputation accordingly waited upon Major-General the Hon. Sir John Malcolm the following morning, and communicated to him the request of the Society; when Sir John Malcolm was pleased to do the Society the honour of accepting the situation of President.

CAN I FORGET THEE?

THOUGH now I leave my native land,
Uncertain where I go,
Still fixed to thee in love's strong band,
Can I forget thee?—No!

Though tossed upon the angry deep,
While storms do raging blow;
Or, while the idle billows sleep,
Can I forget thee?—No!

My soul's distress there's none can tell,—
My feelings none can know;
But, after loving thee so well,
Can I forget thee?—No!

Should future fate yet cheer my heart,
Or cloud my steps with woe,
My mem'ry ne'er with thee shall part,—
Can I forget thee?—No!

Though basking in kind fortune's smiles,
Or in distress laid low;
Whether in pleasures or in toils,
Can I forget thee?—No!

O! ne'er think that I loved thee not;
For while life's flood shall flow,
Should every other be forgot,
Can I forget thee?—No!

Though now by sad misfortune driven,
Far from thee I must go;
When passed from earth, we meet in heaven,
Can I forget thee?—No!

Glasgow, July 15, 1828.

L. M.

MONUMENTS, USAGES, AND CHARACTERISTIC SKETCHES, OF THE ANCIENT PERUVIANS.

No entire records, no written vestiges, are now in existence, which indicate that the Aborigines of Peru had made any considerable progress in machinery; nay, we have ample reasons to conclude, that their knowledge, in this respect, was confined to the simple use of the wedge and lever. Such gigantic labours, consequently, as those with which their country is still studded, must have been the result of indefatigable constancy and the united exertion of numbers, directed by a master-mind. Philosophical researches, the study of ancient curiosities, or even of the sublime works of the Creator, evidently were not the incentives which induced the Spaniards to brave the dangers of an ocean, and penetrate by land to the capital of the Incas. Hence is it that we have entirely lost the descriptions of many noble works of art, the names of which only were mentioned, or at most partially alluded to, in the reports of the first conquerors; not from any motives of interest in the welfare of the unhappy Natives, or any admiration excited in their breasts by the sight of venerable objects of this class, but rather with a view to enhance their own merits, in overcoming men capable of enterprises so arduous and wonderful. Enough, however, may be collected from the mutilated records, traditions, and reports, still extant, to show that the whole of these edifices and works of art were undertaken subsequently to the foundation of the Peruvian monarchy; and, as this memorable event only dates from a period corresponding to the eleventh century of the Christian era, it is not difficult to imagine how ridiculous, and savouring of the marvellous, those reasonings of the primitive historians must have been, (although it must not be forgotten that they were chiefly monks sent over to convert his Catholic Majesty's new subjects,) who attribute the erection of these bold and spacious structures to a race of giants.

The fact is, that, in the quarries where these massive stones were dug and wrought, others are still to be seen, in their half-finished state. Some are nearly completed, and actually in that same scattered and irregular stage of forwardness in which they stood, when the news of the arrival on the frontiers of a strange and powerful people, must have abruptly suspended the prosecution of works of this class. New Cusco is the royal quarry of the Incas, called so at the present day, in which are yet seen more than two thousand stones, standing in the exact form and position in which they were left by the workmen; many of them of an enormous size. Near Cuzco, in the district of Caxamarca, is a stone, thirteen *varas*, or thirty-five feet nine inches long, and one *vara*, or two

feet nine inches, in square thickness. It is placed on another stone, in the rough, and as left by the artist. Pillars of similar dimensions are again noticed in the palace of Tiahuanaco, which it is known was building at the time of the conquest, and is supposed to have been brought from a considerable distance. Another stone has also been observed by travellers, near the same place, measuring nine *varas*, or twenty-four feet nine inches, long, and six *varas*, or fifteen feet eight inches, wide. The whole surface is covered with mouldings and figures, of so strange and irregular a character, that it is not possible now to ascertain what part of that superb edifice this clock was intended to adorn. Some of the movable parts of the building have since been employed in the erection of the church and dwellings in the city.

The remains of this palace of Huanaco stand near the city of La Paz, and wear a more awful and romantic appearance than any others met with in Peru. Tradition ascribes the name originally given to the building to the following incident: One of the primitive Incas, being on a tour through the country, met at the very spot on which the palace was afterwards erected, an express, coming with important news from the capital, and who had travelled with such astonishing rapidity that his celerity was comparable only to that of the fleet huanaco, one of the wild species of Peruvian sheep. The Inca, alluding to this circumstance, said to the messenger, when brought into his presence, 'Tia, huanaco,—Sit down, huanaco.' To preserve the remembrance of this circumstance, as well as to commemorate such an act of condescension on the part of the monarch towards one of his meanest subjects, a town was built and a palace commenced, to which the name of Tiahuanaco was given. The immense pyramid which it contains within its precincts,—the colossal statues, as well as a variety of human figures, cut out of stone, and yet visible, although considerably decayed by the lapse of time, doubtless induced some of the early Spanish authors to assert that works on so large a scale, and figures of such enormous dimensions, could only be attributed to giants; at the same time that it is very clear, that these emblems were only intended to represent some memorable occurrence, the traces of which are now lost; and their large dimensions, as well as those of the whole building, are only additional proofs, to those which we still possess, of the grandeur and ostentation of the Peruvian sovereigns. According to the accounts transmitted down to us of the buildings found on the islands of Capachica, to which allusion has already been made, it is evident that the Peruvians knew not the use of a segment of a circle, or arch, in their architecture, unless we can consider the vaulted roofs still noticed in several interesting ruins, as deserving of that name, and which are constructed by the aid of long stones, laid transversely on the walls, such as some of the passages in the temple of Tiscaca, constructed

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of earth and bricks, or the dome of the portico of the Tia-buanaco palace, which rests on the majestic circle of pillars already mentioned.

To convey an adequate idea of the fortifications of the ancient Peruvians, it would be necessary to have regular plans and elevations of those left behind them in Cusco, Vilcashuaman, and Calen y Lares, constructed of stone; as well as that of Chimo, near Truxillo, built of bricks and clay. Since the opening of South America to the general enterprise of European nations, the times, however, have not been favourable to this species of research in Peru. Fashion may, perhaps, some day or other, lead our artists to the shores of the Pacific, as they now go to those of the Mediterranean, in search of natural views and the remains of Peruvian architecture. As far, however, as regards their strongholds and places of defence, it must not be forgotten, that, from the nature of the warfare originally carried on in those countries, the Peruvians did not require fortifications on the European plan. Their great object was, by advantageously posting a few men, to resist the approach of numbers, as in this respect they evinced the most consummate skill. They had parapets and breastworks to cover them, and were fully prepared to shield themselves from the missiles which might be hurled against the garrison by the assailants. They had outer and inner works, as well as secure magazines for the supply of provisions. In some of their fortresses, from the nature of the approaches, a handful of men might resist the assault of numbers; and this mode of defence is particularly remarkable in the Cusco fortifications.

The chinganas, still seen in the latter city, are subterraneous passages leading from the Inca's palace, and the chief temple of the sun, to the strong fortress or citadel, in case of any intestine war or invasion, in order that the royal family might take shelter there, together with their treasures and the ministers of religion. These avenues, however, are contrived with such art, that, in certain places, only one person can pass at a time, and in some parts only obliquely, owing to the masses of stone with which the passage is impeded, and prepared in such a manner as to block it up altogether, in case of an enemy's approach. These galleries, which extend to a considerable distance under the city, are also rendered more difficult, from the labyrinths into which they are formed. Subterraneous passages are, indeed, general in all the ancient palaces, built in other parts of Peru; but, in the sultry regions, such as Limatambo, for example, it is very dangerous to explore them, at the present time, in consequence of the mephitic air pent up in them for so many years.

The province of Chachapoyas also contains an extraordinary kind of buildings, of a conical shape, supporting large and unwieldy busts of stone. These singular structures are placed on the pendant ridges of mountains; on spots so really inaccessible that the spec-

tator is obliged to conclude, that both the materials and the workmen were lowered down from the summit by means of ropes. These buildings appear to be the mausolea of caciques, or other great men, whose friends or children, desirous of perpetuating their memory, were seemingly anxious not only to secure these monuments, and the ashes which they contained, from the ravages of time, but also to guard them from the rude and profane ravages of man, by placing them in situations where the dread of the precipice was likely to prevent his approach.

The instances above mentioned, added to the ruins of Pachacamac, the edifices of Quito, the fortresses of Herbay and Xaxahuana, as well as the roads cut through the Cordilleras of the Andes, one in particular, in the formation of which high hills had been evidently levelled, are living monuments which attest the skill and enterprise of the ancient Indians of Peru, in civil and military architecture. The style used in the houses of plebeians had nothing in it remarkable; although numerous dwellings, constructed of roughly-hewn stones, show that, even in this respect, a degree of care and nicety was observed. The stones are particularly well fitted, as noticed in several places. The large apertures made in the mountains of Ecamora, Chilco, and Abitanis, in search of gold; those dug in the heights of Choquipina and Porco, for silver; in Curahuara, for copper; and Curuhaco, for lead; together with the subterraneous works in Ancoraimos, all undertaken in the time of the Incas, furnish us with ample testimonies to conclude, that the ancient Peruvians were acquainted with the art of mining, and practised it on an extensive scale. In the mines of Pacaxes, remains of their works are yet seen, indicating that they had formed a regular system of mining, founded on experience and observation. They were, however, unacquainted with the mode of separating the precious metals from the rough ore, by means of amalgamation and the use of quicksilver: consequently, we are left to conclude, that they obtained their results by the obvious process of trituration and fusion. Their crucibles must have been particularly good; indeed, their earthen vessels, of which numbers are preserved, are of a superior quality, and extremely ingenious and well moulded in shape. The Peruvians, judging at least from vestiges left, were not, however, so economical and systematic as to seek out and confine themselves to a particular vein, although they had previous proofs that it was one of great promise. They trusted to the united efforts of hosts of labourers, constantly renewed; and, having once ascertained the presence of the metal they were in search of, they were in the habit of laying the mineral ridge bare, and thus prosecuted their labours downwards, on a large scale. By this means, they often filled up the apertures, which a little before they had opened, by emptying into them the last rubbish dug out. This was particularly observable in the mines

of Vilcabamba, as well as in those of Laricaxa, where the internal passages are nearly choked up with accumulated heaps of rubbish.

The Incas had also smelting-houses, an appendage of royalty, for the preparation of metals, built with solidity and splendour. Such were those of Choquequirau, now a desolated town; but the remains of the smelting-house are still standing on the mountains, divided by the river Apurimac. The ancient Peruvians were, however, more famous for the discovery of the layers, or strata of gold, which, being nearer the surface, they obtained more easily than by digging for silver. A large portion of their gold was, however, procured by washing the sediment found in the water-courses and gullies, made by the mountain-torrent, in nearly the same way as is still pursued, with the aid of a calabash or platter, in Peru and Brazil.

In all the other monuments of the ancient Peruvians, a great solicitude to escape the corroding edge of time, and a wish to attain immortality by their duration, seem to have prevailed. That they were extremely anxious in this respect, is attested by the number of mummies, still found entire in the *huacas*, or earthen pyramids. The process, however, by which they preserved dead bodies, is a secret never discovered by their European conquerors. In the temple of Cusco, in the open air, exposed to public view, and a climate that corrodes the hardest substances, they kept the bodies of their successive sovereigns, from the founder of the empire, Manco-Capac, to the last but one of his successors. It is recorded that they were seated in litters, in an attitude and dress that made them appear as if they were alive. Garcilasso, one of their own descendants, and an historian contemporary with the conquest, assures us, that he himself saw them, and expressly adds, that the venerable monarch, placed first in the line, was in a perfect state of preservation, after a lapse of seven centuries. Some persons have conjectured, that these bodies were preserved by exposure to frost, a process from which the Peruvians, in other cases, obtained peculiar results, to us perfectly unknown; but this will appear impossible, when it is remembered that mummies are yet occasionally found in sepulchres and pyramids, standing in valleys where the influence of cold is scarcely ever felt. We are, therefore, left to conclude, that the Peruvians were acquainted with a preparation of gums and balsams, or some other of the vegetable substances, of the most efficacious kind, found in their forests, the precise knowledge of which is no longer retained. In contemplating this singular race of beings, in whose misfortunes the reader, in the least acquainted with their history, cannot fail to feel a lively interest, this is not the only peculiarity in which the ancient Peruvians resembled the Egyptians.

THE CANTON REGISTER.

SOME recent Numbers of this extremely curious and highly interesting Journal have been placed in our hands by a friend; and we have found so much entertainment in the perusal of their pages, that we consider we cannot do a more acceptable service to the readers of 'The Oriental Herald,' in England particularly, than by selecting some of the most striking of the articles, especially those relating to the state of trade, society, government, and manners, all of which abound with traits of great novelty and interest. We shall be most happy to receive a continuation of the Work; and, if it embodies, in subsequent Numbers, the same degree of curious and interesting matter, it cannot fail to be welcomed by inquiring minds, in every country of Europe. The following are from its pages:

Chinese Geography.

'Sagalien Island, or Tehoka, so called according to European geographers, has no general name on Chinese maps. They still represent it as an island, with a small islet between it and the main land. But late accounts from Japan report that there is so little water on the isthmus, that the Natives can ford it, carrying their canoes on their shoulders. On the northern side of the mouth of the river Amour, the Tartar-Chinese have a town, and general mart, called Tsetaleho, to which the Chinese resort, and carry on a considerable commerce.

'The Japanese, whose attention has not been called to this large island for more than half a century, are gradually usurping the dominion of the whole.

'From Tsetaleho, Tartars who have been at Irkutsk, occasionally visit Japan.

'Might not a Sagalien Company be formed advantageously at Canton, to send up a vessel annually to Loochoo, Japan, and Tartary, with necessaries of life suited to the climate, and receive in return furs and metals for the Chinese market? With an enterprising captain, and a Chinese interpreter, it must surely be practicable to open, gradually, a trade with the islands of the Korean Archipelago, and the eastern coast of Asia, eventually profitable to all parties.

'The extent of the rivers which disemboque at the mouth of the Amour, is truly astonishing; and all the principal cities of Eastern Tartary are accessible by them. They extend at least 30° of longitude. Our readers, by referring to any map of Asia, will observe a large stem of the river, nearest the sea, running north-east, and two forked branches, the one in an east and west direction, and the

other in the same direction nearly, as the trunk or stem in European maps called Songari. The stem and branch Songari, which communicates with Kirin Ula, and by a lateral branch with Ning-kuta, principal cities in Manshur Tartary, the Chinese call Hwántungkeang, and the Japanese give the same name to the great stem which enters the sea at Okotsk. The branch, which lies east and west, and extends beyond the Russian city Nipcha, (Chinese, Ne-pootsoo,) on the northern bank, and runs in the country of the Kalkas, is called Hilungkeang, the Black Dragon River. This is the Amour of the Russians and the Sagalien of the Tartars. That the Chinese name Hilunkeang is applied to the river, after the Sagalien and the Songari meet, is a mistake.

* The Chinese place upwards of a dozen cities on the banks of rivers which communicate with Tsetileho, at the mouth of the Hwántungkeang.

* We should rejoice to see a settlement founded on Sagallen Island by some civilised power. Furs, metals, and train oil, might, in all probability, be collected in abundance, to repay the expense at first, and gradually knowledge and civilisation diffuse themselves, and promote the happiness of the inhabitants.

Pekin News.

* Pekin, December 14.

* To-day the following imperial mandate was respectfully received.

* Kwolifutga, the commandant of Hangechow, who, possessing the rank of duke, entered the army, and who has, at distant governments in Tartary, performed his duty in the most satisfactory manner, has, as I have now heard, departed from the world.

* "I hereby command that the funeral rites, proper for the office of Tseongkwan, be conferred, and that 300 taels be given towards the expenses attending them; to be paid out of the treasury of Chekeang province.

* "On the arrival of the deceased at Pekin, let the coffin * be permitted to enter the city, and be there interred, and let Kwolifunga be restored to every official honour from which he may have been degraded in his life-time."

* The Emperor has been absent from the capital, to the eastward, to deposit the remains of the late Empress, his mother, in their resting-place, and to pour out libations to her manes.

* He visited also the felicitous ground, where he looks onward to

* "No corpse is allowed to enter the gates of Pekin without an imperial order; because, it is said, a rebel entered in a coffin during the reign of Kienlung. However, even at Canton, and in all other cities of the empire, no corpse is permitted to enter the southern gate, because the Emperor of China sits on his throne with his face towards the south."

dwelt ten thousand years, his own mausoleum, which he found completed in a most substantial and satisfactory manner. The great officers engaged in superintending the works, have all been graciously rewarded; and the people through whose grounds his route lay, having been much inconvenienced by the great retinue which attended him, have had half the land-tax, for the current year, remitted.

On November 16, rain and snow fell, but not so heavy as to make it at all difficult to have the road in good order, which, however, those whose duty it was failed to effect. He, therefore, censures those who had the general superintendence of the journey, but does not require any court of inquiry on their conduct.

Canton News.

Canton, January 31.

To-day, the six men mentioned in the following document, appeared before Messrs. Marjoribanks, Jackson, Lindsay, and Astell, knelt down, and returned thanks, in the Chinese manner, for the providential deliverance mentioned in the paper itself.

Dr. Morrison handed a Chinese paper to them, stating that the English gentlemen considered what they had done, as a duty which the Supreme Ruler required of every man towards his fellow-creatures, and all the recompense they desired was, that the men whose lives had been saved, would imitate the example set them, should it ever be their lot to meet with a drowning human being, whether native or foreigner. Mr. Jackson then delivered to them 270 dollars, which had been subscribed for their relief, as the junk and cargo were completely lost.

The old man of the village took away the Chinese document to show it to others, and engrave it upon a stone, to perpetuate the advice contained in it. As the Tungkoon district is on the banks of the Canton river, from first bar, down as far as Chuenpee, there is reason to hope this occurrence may excite a feeling of humane exertion on the part of the Native population.

Old Wongyantung presented four copies of the thanksgiving document: one for the committee, and one each for Messrs. Jackson, Lindsay, and Astell.

Translation.

We, Woughstick, and the others, (undersigned,) are Natives of the villages Sungwantsze and Yumowsha, in the district Tungkoonune, under the Foo of Kwongchou, in the province of Kwongteing.

Having been at the village Chintsu, (in Shantank district, where a great fair, or market, is held,) to trade, we were returning home in a junk, on the 12th of the 12th moon, of the 7th year of the reign of Tsoolwang, when passing the Lion's reach, (24 bar,) we

met with a sudden and unexpected great gust of wind, which upset the boat and sunk us in the water, where we were gradually approaching the point of death, having scarcely any breath left in us.

Thanks to the English supercargoes, Jackson and others, who, a long way off, observed us, and immediately themselves came in three boats, with haste, saved us and took us into their chop-boat, where they employed every means to restore us ere we were resuscitated; we have received from them life-giving favour, and recreating virtue.

Further, we have to thank them for bestowing on us money to pay our expenses home for clothes and other things.

When we got home, we proclaimed the occurrence every where; and there was not a man in the village who did not reverently praise the great virtue of these gentlemen.

Therefore, the village squire, and old man, Wongtowyaong and Wongyamting, led forth the four men, Wonghestick, &c.; to go in person to Canton, to knock head, and return thanks for this illustrious goodness.

Again, we have to return thanks for the bestowment of much gold to make up our loss, and to provide us clothes and food. This really is favour, upon favour! Who has ever done this! What shall we do to recompense it!

We shall at home erect a gold-lettered tablet, with the names of our deliverers inscribed, and knock head, and return thanks, praying that they may enjoy long life, riches, and honours.

And abroad we shall spread their names, and disperse the fame of their virtues. This return, for such illustrious goodness, is but a ten thousandth part of what we owe.

Especially to state these things, we present this petition before Mr. Jackson's bar to render thanks.

WONGHILSTICK,

LEONGSHINGTSIM,

LAECHONGEER,

LAEMANTSUNE.

Knock head, and worship a hundred times.

The New Year.

The Chinese make their new year commence on the new moon, nearest to the time when the sun's place is in the 15th degree of Aquarius. It is the greatest festival observed in the empire. Both the Government and the people, rich and poor, take a longer or shorter respite from their cares and their labours at the new year.

The last day of the old year is an anxious time to all debtors and creditors; for it is the great pay-day, and those who cannot pay are abused and insulted, and often have the furniture of their house all sold to pieces by their desperate creditors.

' On the 20th of the twelfth moon, by an order from court, all the seals of office, throughout the empire, are locked up, and not opened till the 20th of the first moon. By this arrangement there are thirty days of rest from the ordinary official business of Government. They attend, however, to extraordinary cases.

' During the last few days of the old year, the people perform various domestic rites. On one evening, they sweep clean the furnace and the hearth, and worship the god of their domestic fires.

' On new year's eve, they perfume hot water with the leaves of Wongpe and Pumelo trees, and bathe in it. At midnight, they arise and dress in the best clothes and caps they can procure; then towards heaven kneel down, and perform the great imperial ceremony of knocking the forehead on the ground thrice three times. Next they illuminate as splendidly as they can, and pray for felicity towards some domestic idol. Then they visit all the gods in the various surrounding temples, burn candles, incense, gut paper, make bows, and prostrate pray.

' These services to the gods being finished, they sally forth about day-light in all directions, to visit friends and neighbours, leaving a red paper card at each house. Some stay at home to receive visitors. In the house, sons and daughters, servants and slaves, all dress, and appear before the heads of the family, to congratulate them on the new year.

' After new year's day, drinking and carousing, visiting and feasting, idleness and dissipation, continue for weeks. All shops are shut, and workmen idle, for a longer or shorter period, according to the necessities, or the habits, of the several parties. It is, in Canton, generally a month before the business of life returns to its ordinary channel.

Chinese News.

' Peking.—His Majesty's commands have been received as follows:

"The criminals in all the provinces, referred to the Supreme Court for the autumnal executions, have had their cases examined by the Criminal Board, and decided on. The sentences passed in several of the provinces by the Local Governments, have been reversed; which indicates a want of serious attention to these great concerns on the part of the governors, judges, &c.; by which neglect some have been erroneously involved in crime, and others let out. I hereby command, that those several officers be subjected to a Court of Inquiry; and hereafter the governors and judges must, as is their duty, diligently, and with minds free as a vacuum of all prejudice, ascertain the truth, and pass sentence. They must not, on any account, exercise a cutting and cruel severity; nor must they intentionally give way to lightness, and mitigation of punishment.

"The great object must be,—no injustice, no indulgence, but let

every one receive what his crime deserves, and so carry into effect my desire, to grasp the law by the middle.—Respect this.

One of the princes has accused the officers of the Criminal Board of a cruel and unjust infliction of torture. The prisoner was kept kneeling on chains, and otherwise tortured, for the space of a whole month.

The Governor of Peking has apprehended one of the clerks of the Board of Revenue, who, with his accomplices, had forged an official edict, and endeavoured to employ it to extort money. A man who kept a clothier's shop was an accomplice.

To forge an imperial edict is, by law in China, death by decapitation. To forge the commands of the empress, or her apparent, is death by strangling. To forge the orders of governors, magistrates, &c., is punished by a hundred blows, or transportation for three years, or less, according to the rank of the officer whose orders were forged, on the principle that the orders of inferior officers, if forged, can do less mischief than those of superiors.

Tartary.—From Oromousi, it is reported that the troops which have been in active service for more than a year, require a grant of pay in advance, in consequence of the wear and tear of horses, saddles, clothes, and shoes. The emperor has commanded the loan of half a year's pay to be deducted after the war is over.

Aksu, in Little Bucharia.—In consequence of the expense incurred by repairing the walls of the Mohammedan towns, retaken from the rebels, a scarcity of money is felt. His Majesty has therefore ordered a supply of copper, and a detachment of troops to coin it.

On the frontier, the military have been detected in conniving at natives poaching, and destroying the stags, whose horns form a valuable medicine, and are claimed as imperial property.

Chekeang Province.—On this coast, several Government gunboats, which defend the traders against pirates, were, in November last, lost in a gale of wind.

Ili, (or Eli,) the place of transportation from the south of China.—The Governor of this station has represented, that the Nomad tribes of Hassacks have this season greatly increased their traffic at Ele; and that, in consequence of the rebellion, the cloths from Cashgar and Koten were insufficient in quantity to give in exchange to the Hassacks, for their horses and cattle.

Cashgar.—Woolungo, the third member of the military triumvirate in Turkistan, has been reported to his Majesty as in a bad state of health, and unable to attend to his duties. The Emperor has commanded him to remain at Cashgar, and, with a tranquil mind, use means for the restoration of his health; and, when recovered, to announce it, and request farther commands.

Proclamations

Our chief magistrate in the city of Canton has published the following document, printed in large characters, and pasted against the walls of houses in the streets, as is usual with the Chinese Government.

“Wang, by special appointment the principal magistrate of Kwangchow-foo, who has been promoted three steps, and remarkably recorded five times, hereby issues an urgent interdiction.

“The metropolis of this province (Canton) is a place of crowded resort, where persons from the five regions (east, west, north, south, and centre) of the empire dwell promiscuously. Inside the city, and outside in the suburbs, market-places are as thick as scales on a fish. It continually occurs that there are found a number of vagabonds, acting irregularly and illegally. In the day-time, they grope and cut away purses from persons walking in the streets; at night, they bore their way through walls, to steal and rob; so that the resident inhabitants scarcely ever sleep on a tranquil pillow.

“Besides, there are local blackguards, called Takwan and Lant-sae, who saunter idly about the streets, wasting their property, and neglecting their proper business. These at last make gambling their trade, and swindling their profession, on which they depend for raiment and food. There are also hard-hearted soldiers, and gnawing lictors, who connect themselves with these people. Some post themselves at ferry landing-places, or station themselves about markets, or rove about the streets, to extort money under various pretences, or, maddened by liquor, act cruelly, and disturb and annoy the people in a hundred ways. It is not possible to record all the poisonous and pernicious effects produced by them on the district.

“Since I came to the present situation, I have repeatedly commanded the inferior magistrates to act faithfully in the seizure of such persons; but the depraved spirit still prevails.

“The year has now attained its evening, when hurry and perturbation make pilfering easy. I therefore command all civil and military officers under me, to exert themselves diligently in the apprehension of vagabonds; and I command both soldiers and people to attend to their respective duties. You, people, have each an occupation. If you keep in your own department, obey the laws, and diligently trade or work, you have plenty of ways to obtain a livelihood. Why willingly become a bandit, and cast yourselves on the downward stream? The law's net is very broad; the meshes, though wide, suffer none to escape. Having once violated the law, you will fall into the pit of punishment. There, though you should desire to be a worthy subject of a holy age, you will be unable to effect your wishes.

“After this Proclamation, let every one arouse, repent, and reform; let all aim to renew the skin of their faces, and avoid their

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repentance which is useless as a man's attempting to turn his own
ravel. Ye dwellers in market-places, take good heed to your doors,
and shut them carefully morning and evening. If vagabonds, as
before, swindle, rob, and annoy, seize them, and drag them before
a magistrate. If lictors connive and combine, I shall, on the mo-
ment of detection, flog them till they die. I am resolved to show
no indulgence. Let every one tremblingly obey. Oppose not. A
special proclamation."

Canton News.

In the streets of Canton, it has lately been frequent to plunder
bundles from passengers, and hand them to accomplices who run off
with them. One fellow was caught, who confessed, and gave in the
names of sixty accomplices. Another, who actually snatched away
a student's satchel, was taken; but he had transferred the plunder,
and, when carried before a magistrate, was prevented from going in
by the attending military, because there was nothing found on the
thief which the law requires as evidence. The people suspect these
military police are participators of the plunder.

January 29.—Linafong, for murder, was decapitated, and the
following day his head sent in a cage, to be suspended where the
murder was committed. On the 31st, Chingtsu-shing was be-
headed for robbery. At these executions, it is usual for the military
officer at the head of this district, called the Kwng-Chow-Heep, to
attend. The person who now holds that office, however, considers
executions so common-place, that he declines going in person,
unless five criminals or upwards are to be put to death.

It is said, that at Leemchow-foo, on the western frontier of the
province, several thousands of the Triad Society lately assembled,
and cut down the crop of Paddee, which they carried off, together
with pigs, buffaloes, &c., after wounding several of the farmers, who
endeavoured to protect their property. The local authorities have
requested of the Governor-general the assistance of the military, to
go against these banditti.

February 1.—This morning Lamalow, for coasting piracy, was
beheaded. This execution makes the number of capital punish-
ments which have taken place during the last twelve months,
within a mile of the foreign factories, amount to 202; full two-thirds
of them were inflicted by the local authorities, without any previous
reference to Peking. The crimes were generally robbery, rape, and
murder. The modes of punishment were decapitation, strangula-
tion on a cross, and slowly cutting to pieces. The unhappy culprit
is stripped naked, and lashed to a cross; a cut is made across the
forehead, and the skin of the face pulled down; then the feet, legs,
hands, arms, and head, are successively cut off from the trunk, which
is finally stabbed to the heart. This terrible and cruel form of death
is, however, that is, ignominious and slow, and is inflicted for

crimes against superiors, treason, the murder of parents, &c. The population of the province is perhaps equal to that of Scotland, but how widely different the number of capital punishments, besides those who die in prison annually from cruel usage.

‘ A new treasurer and judge of Canton province are expected in the course of the month.

‘ An order has been received from Court, as usual every year, to shut up the seals of office throughout the empire on the 20th day of the twelfth moon, and re-open them on the 20th day of the first moon of the ensuing year.

‘ For the accommodation of foreign ships at Canton, the seals of the custom-house are shut up only for three or four days at the new year.

‘ Civilians taken from various districts of this province, to the number of thirty-eight, have been nominated to escort one million nine hundred thousand taels, from the Hoppo's treasury to Peking.

‘ February 4.—Last night, a storm of very loud thunder and heavy rain passed over Canton. Thunder in winter is considered by the Chinese as ominous of some impending calamity. It is a proverb, that thunder in the tenth moon is baneful to sovereign princes.

‘ February 4.—To-day is a great holiday throughout the empire. It is called Yingchun, that is, meeting the spring, to-morrow, when the sun enters the 15° of Aquarius, being considered the commencement of the spring season. It is a sort of Lord Mayor's day. The chief magistrate of the district goes forth in great pomp, carried on men's shoulders, in an open chair, with gongs beating, music playing, and nymphs and satyrs seated among artificial rocks and trees, carried in procession.

‘ He goes to the general parade-ground, on the east side of Canton, on the following day, being Laychun, the first day of spring, in a similar style. There a buffalo, with an agricultural god made of clay, having been paraded through the streets, and pelted by the populace, to impel its labours, is placed on the ground, in solemn state, when this official priest of spring gives it a few strokes with a whip, and leaves it to the populace, who pelt it with stones till it is broken to pieces; and so the foolish ceremony terminates. The due observance of this ancient usage is supposed to contribute greatly to an abundant year.

‘ We understand that his reverence the Bishop of Macao died on the 31st of January last, and was interred on the 3d current, with all the pomp and ceremony usual on similar occasions. The see will remain vacant until the nomination of a successor by the Court at Lisbon.

‘ February 19.—We have lately witnessed two singular events.

tempts of the Chinese to take the law into their own hands upon some disputed points of business with the foreigners residing here.

The last occurred on Sunday the 10th inst., and might have led to some immediate serious consequences, owing to the violence of the attack, which was undoubtedly the grossest and most dastardly proceeding. The individual European was opposed by the contending party, aided by about forty Chinese sailors, his person seized, and hustled through several streets, and, but for the spirited interference of a Parsee gentleman, he might have received serious personal injury.

The English authorities here have interfered, and the result will, no doubt, be that of severe punishment of the offenders.

The latter case is particularly atrocious; the English gentleman having earnestly pressed a reference either to the British chief, or to any other party, from the very commencement of the dispute; to which the Chinese at length agreed, only half an hour before the assault was made.

These things ought not to be tolerated; for, although no legal tribunal is established by British authority, yet any appeal made to the Select Committee would be attended to, and forth that judgment, either in favour or against their countrymen, which English justice and honourable feeling never fail to give.

The ringleaders, as in similar cases, have absconded.

Trade in China.

It was our desire to lay before our readers a statement of the general trade of the last season; but we perceive a difficulty in giving any correct view of it as to its extent and value, and in attempting it, we might only mislead, giving a series of figures without conveying any real information. The retrospective method we do not find easy, and this we must necessarily have recourse to, from the recent institution of our Journal. We will, however, confine ourselves to certain facts, which may give some useful criteria.

The importations of cotton have been from

Bengal, in 7 Company and Country ships.....	Bales, 37,631
Bombay, in 5 ditto and 22 ditto.....	— 108,023
Madras, in 3 ditto.....	— 12,356

The exportations of bullion have been to

Bengal, in dollars.....	2,169,837	} Drs. 2,244,320
Sycee.....	19,210	
S. Am. silver.....	55,273	
Bombay, in dollars.....	3,143,840	} Drs. 3,423,659
Sycee.....	251,819	
S. Am. silver.....	28,000	

The importations of dollars this season, we understand, amount to about \$204,500, and the circulation of Company's bills on the

Supreme Government of Bengal, may probably not amount to more than seventeen lacs of dollars.

A very considerable proportion of the treasure has been in broken coin, the defaced dollars passed in the usual interchange with the Chinese; and which, we understand, are nearly as productive, when converted to the purpose of coinage in the mints of India, as the new dollars are for a remittance.

The Chinese prohibit a general export of bullion, but, with a liberal policy, grant a license for each vessel to take away, to the proportion in value of one-third of the proceeds of her inward cargo.

Of the number of vessels visiting this port only a part have occasion to avail themselves of this liberty; but the aggregate privilege is not destroyed; and, when an extensive shipment in one vessel is required, it is accomplished by granting the unappropriated right of others; and, for each ship's privilege so obtained, a payment is made to the mandarin, or linguist.

The exportation of Sycee silver and gold is totally prohibited, (and, we believe, also all their metallic manufactures,) and, when any are exported, it must be done clandestinely.

Here we may be allowed to notice the strict principle of integrity which pervades the Sycee operations; for we are not aware of any deception having occurred in the usual intercourse of that trade. The purity of the silver is generally 97 to 98 touch, and no adulteration is practised.

We are sorry to remark, that, in some of the South American adventures, deceit has been detected,—a system that must prove very injurious to that branch of traffic, and ill applied to the confidence which is the commercial feeling of this place.

There are several descriptions of Sycee. The Hoppo Sycee is that in which the Hong merchant pays the duties arising from the foreign trade. That denominated the salt, is what the duties on that article are discharged with. The salt forms one of the highest branches of commerce in Canton, and the mandarin presiding over it is an officer of great importance.

The land-tax, and every description of revenue arising from husbandry, levied in another kind of Sycee, termed Fanfoo, and with this the military, the mandarins, and all the Emperor's servants, are paid. It is considered to be of the first purity, and ought to be at nearly 100 touch, but is seldom supposed to arrive beyond that of 99. It is rarely brought into the market.

There is also another sort, brought from Nanking and Chin-chew, in pieces of 50 taels each; but all of them are exported, and found in the bazaars of India.

The usual interest in China is 12 per cent. per annum, or 1 per

cent. per month; but foreigners frequently find a difficulty of depositing their funds with a Hong merchant of undoubted security, to bear so high a rate; 15, 18, and 20 per cent. are very often paid, and in times of exigency amongst themselves, at still more.

Whilst upon this subject, we may connect our remarks upon pawnbroking, which is carried up to a very great extent in China. The system seems divided into two parts: one branch affording aid to those in the very inferior walks of life, and chiefly confined to very small advances; the other granting loans upon deposits of higher value, and corresponding with similar establishments in England. These are authorised by the Government; but there are others, we are informed, that exist without this sanction, and are directed to the relief of the mercantile interest. These assimilate very nearly to the late project in London of an Equitable Loan Company, making advances upon cargoes and large deposits of goods.

These houses are as conspicuously indicated, by an exterior sign over the door, as our shops in England are by the three golden balls; but, whether they indicate the same doctrine of chance as to the return of property, we will not pretend to say. Three years are allowed to redeem, with a grace of three months.

There are many peculiar features in the system of the Chinese trade; and, in several instances, perhaps, their regulations are very good, when it is considered how little communication exists between the foreigners and the Government.

All the duties are paid by the Chinese, whether in purchasing or selling; and the quotations in our Prices Current are stated in the exports, with the duty included, and the imports at the prices free from it. Our importation goods sold to them are always weighed on board, the seller paying the crop-boat expenses, but the price of export includes every charge till delivered on board the vessel.

Their scale of duties requires much revision; as, for instance, in many articles which are rated by the piece, no regard is had to size, either in breadth or length; and, when a difference is made in quality, they are very arbitrary in adjusting it, and thus endless disputes occur. They have no knowledge of the principle of drawback; therefore an article, when once imported, is subject, on its export, to another duty, although it may be returned to the same ship from whence it was received as being unsaleable.

Solids and liquids are both sold by weight.

Tutunague was formerly a very considerable article of export, although one falling under the prohibitory law; a certain quantity annually was allowed to be taken away; this, however, was very small, and the chief extent of the trade was carried on by smugglers. The introduction into India of the European spelter, has put an end to the export altogether. Its internal demand is, however,

considerable, from its being generally required in the construction of their domestic utensils, and all the manufactures of copper.

Saltpetre is admitted in import, but on the condition that it be sold to the Government, and, thus suffering under restriction, it is thrown into the irregular trade of smuggling. Its consumption is very considerable, and in general there is a demand. The quantity applied to the making of fireworks is very great, particularly in the common crackers, which are used in profusion at all the religious occasions, and taken away in some amount by the country ships.

The system of barter used formerly to prevail; but the commercial footing has been much improved, by abolishing a plan which was most delusive in its operations.

Now, most bargains are made for cash payments; but the period of a month is frequently given, in transactions of great magnitude, to give relief in the settlement of them.

The officers of the customs are very diligent to detect any illicit proceeding, but, too frequently, are ready to fall into any arrangement by which their own interest may be served, although the result be that of diminishing the revenue.

All the business of landing and shipping cargoes, is done through the medium of a linguist. This is a civil appointment, of which there are several; and it is an office of purchase. The Company's ships are given to them in rotation; but those of other nations, and all the country ships, remain as a patronage with the consignee. The emoluments arising from this situation are supposed to be great; but it is one of trouble and activity generally, and, in times of commotion, of great anxiety.

It is not always possible to ascertain the quantity of any particular article that may be imported into China, in which the Europeans may be more generally interested; for many of the Eastern products are taken direct from Batavia, Singapore, and other places in the Straits, to their own ports, in junks; and in many cases, we are informed, this is done purely to evade a transit duty, which is levied upon the goods being sent from this into the interior, whereas, otherwise, the port of Canton would be preferred.

In noticing these particulars, which, to the residents of Canton, may appear trifling, as subjects so familiarly known to them, we still hope we may be allowed to consider them as essential to the general reader. Our communications must be in fragments; but, if they should form a sub of useful information, developing the peculiar customs of a trade with a nation little known, our object will be attained; and, under this impression, we shall venture to continue them.

Chinese Censor.

Keangnan, of Hanking. — The Censor of this province has just published in the *Oriental Herald*, Vol. 18.

moralised his Majesty on the subject of homicides and murders. He complains of a great want of diligence and of truth on the part of provincial governors and magistrates; and, consequently, either from remissness or bribery, justice is not executed, nor the revenge of kindred satisfied. And when the friends of murdered persons do find their way to the capital, and make the highest appeal, they are commonly remanded to the very same persons who have already done them an injustice, to be re-tried. The careless magistrate permits the lictors, and official examiners of dead bodies, to do as they please, and report as they are bribed to do; and the corrupt magistrate is himself a party to the injustice.

The Censor instances a few recent cases in which the false proceedings were detected. In one instance, suicide, by hanging, was reported, when the fact turned out to be that the deceased was poisoned. In another, a man wilfully murdered his own brother, and it was reported that his mother, in consequence of the deceased having misapplied her money, ordered another brother to beat him till he died. A third instance was, a horrid case of a man having violently abused a boy's body, and afterwards murdered him. The magistrate was bribed to report it Accidental Drowning.

To prevent these occurrences, the Censor requests the Emperor to order all the governors of provinces to be stricter with the inferior magistrates, and, when any case of appeal is referred from Court to the province, either to try the case themselves, or direct officers not previously concerned to conduct the new trial.

The law of homicide is very unequal in China. A grandfather, or grandmother, killing a grandchild; a father or mother killing, or wilfully murdering, their own son or daughter; and a master or mistress killing a domestic slave,—are only punishable with sixty or seventy blows. Even if they wish to lay the murder falsely on some other person, the punishment is but eighty blows, and three years' transportation. Hence, in the case mentioned by the Censor, the endeavour to make out that one brother was ordered, by their common mother, to beat the other to death for misappropriation of money, would have reduced the fratricide to a very venial offence; for, according to law, the person urging on, or ordering another to wound or kill, is equally responsible. How completely, then, were the Chinese wrong, in the memorable case of the gunner, even according to their own law.

Divorce.

The Oanchasze, or Criminal Judge, of Canton province, has issued the following Proclamation:

“Chow, by imperial appointment the Criminal Judge of Canton hereby strictly prohibits the putting away of wives for slight causes husbands conniving at the wife's adultery, or selling her to another man. His object is to support the public morals.

"The relation of husband and wife is the first of the five social bonds. The domestic female apartment is the source of all moral renovation. Husband and wife should respect each other as host and guest, and live in constant harmony, like two well-attuned instruments of music. Thus together they should water their own garden, and eat the fruit of their labour. No dislikes should be allowed to arise from poverty or want. The wife should look up to her husband as her heaven, and not be allowed, at her pleasure, to desert him.

"For vile practices, there is no place so bad as Canton. Sometimes prosperity makes men forget a former affection. Sometimes want, induced by a disposition addicted to gaming, and a lack of food and clothes, produces sudden repudiation without regret. Then the ejected wife, deceived by covetous go-betweens, is hired for clandestine purposes. Some sell their wives to sing and play, and submit to the embraces of others. Some invite profligate men to their own houses, and give up their wives to prostitution. Such practices inflict a deadly wound on public morals, and therefore Chow issues this Proclamation to prohibit them. And he commands all persons, both the military and people, for the time to come, to obey the laws of decorum. Even if in deep poverty, still let them submit tranquilly to Heaven's decree. Diligence and economy must produce a competence. All should know that legitimate posterity depends upon a lawful wife; and she ought not to be rejected, and sold for lewd purposes, to the disgrace of the family; nor should there be the least connivance.

"If ye, adulterers and adulteresses, persist and reform not, it is resolved to prosecute with the utmost rigour of law. Under the luminous heaven and renovating sun of his present Majesty's reign, it is impossible to endure you, ye wounders and destroyers of the public morals. Let each tremblingly obey this mandate, and not induce a too late repentance."

"The law of divorce is, that whoever puts away his wife, excepting for one of the seven legal causes, shall be punished with eighty blows. The seven causes are—having no son, lewdness, not serving her husband's parents, loquacity, theft or robbery, envy and malice, some noxious disease.

"Of husband and wife, the first bond should be kindness; the union, righteousness; the continuance, decorum. Breaches of decorum may be overlooked; but unrighteous acts, such as a wife striking her husband, or a husband his wife, and wounding each other, make it necessary to insist on a separation; as much so as a man's forcing his wife to cohabit with another man, or hiring her out for the same purpose.

"To modify the seven legal causes of divorce, which are rather sweeping, there are three exceptions. Some causes may not be

alleged during the three years of mourning for a parent, the parties were first poor, and afterwards rich; one of them was married into a house at the time of the marriage, but had never returned.

Laws and Customs.

The case referred to in our 7th Number, about allowing a foreign body to enter the south gate of any city in China, explains the currency which took place a few years ago at Macao, and which had nearly terminated fatally to some of the parties concerned.

An officer, who had died on board a Company's ship in these roads, was brought on shore to be interred. Not knowing that there was any objection, the remains were rowed to the landing-place of the south bay (Namwan) Chinese custom-house. But when the Chinese perceived the intention of carrying the coffin up the steps in front of the imperial office, they turned out, with words and spears, to prevent it. Some of the British thought it a violation of the flag which was hoisted in the boat, and proceeded to force a passage.

However, the minister of religion who attended the funeral, being grieved at such disorder on so solemn an occasion, led the bearers along the beach, and handed the coffin up to the quay; and the conflict at the landing-place ceased. A knowledge of the Chinese usage and feeling would have prevented the encounter.

Kiangsi province.—The Hoakune, or president of literati in the province, having sold degrees clandestinely, a secret report was sent to the Emperor; and he ordered two commissioners to proceed forthwith and search Fokshin the president's house. They found a hoard amounting to 400,000 taels, a sum which a doctor of letters could not have acquired by any fair means. Ashamed, disgraced, and beggared, poor Fokshin went and hanged himself.

Feast upon a Sacrifice.

His Majesty has published the names of the kings, and great statesmen, who are permitted to eat flesh with him at the new year. Here follow the names of six kings, the heir apparent, the ministers, who form a council of six, and about a dozen others; among whom we observe the name of old Sung-tajih, Lord Macartney's venerable conductor from Peking, who was reported dead two years ago.

The Register.

Owing to the cessation of business during the holidays, we omit our price current in this number, to give place to subjects which we hope will be found interesting.

Nor can it be more pleasing to the social mind than the sympathy in the innocent and universal joy of the surrounding multitude, and this we have felt, in a very high degree, on the late arrival of the Chinese new year.

Far separated as foreigners residing here are from the countries of Europe and America, where domestic comforts, we think, are more fully estimated, and more rationally enjoyed, than in any other part of the world, the most delightful emotions have been kindled at viewing the customs of a people who have, in this instance, approximated so nearly to our own.

The happy equanimity, the mutual congratulations, the best dresses, and the most successfulness of business, and of soothings, to our recollection, the pleasing recreations which Christmas never fails to afford, and in which the old and the young amongst us have so often participated.

The new year has been conspicuous in every situation; the houses decorated, the domestic altars open, the incense burning, and even the poorest person displaying his sense of the occasion in his best and newest dress. And parental affection never forgets the new cap and shoe, which are sure to impart a joy and pride to his little children.

The glossy fur has been in a handsome robe, which perhaps has been handed down by a long line of ancestry, and may associate with it many pleasing traces of the history of their forefathers.

The weather, at the commencement, was unpropitious, but the latter days were uncommonly fine; and we were witness to the happiness which this circumstance so much promoted, in excursions on the water, the splendid and gay appearance of their pleasure-boats, and in the usual retreat to the gardens of Fatee, which the gentry of both sexes visit on seasons of holyday.

These gardens are near to Canton, and strangers are permitted to resort to them on particular days.

We could discover, in the manner of the people, a disposition of freedom, which would readily have admitted a friendly intercourse, had they not been restrained by the peculiar customs of their country, which are so repulsive to the cultivation of social intimacy, and so inconsistent with a civilised nation.

Abuses

Against which his Excellency the Governor of Canton has issued a Proclamation, forbidding their continuance, and threatening those concerned.

First abuse.—The clerks and writers to act in concert, and extort money, at which the local magistrates connive, and without distinguishing "black from white," (that is, the innocent from the guilty,) determine after hearing only one side of the question.

Second abuse.—Larger clans, in villages, insult smaller ones. In Canton it is the custom for kindred of different names to associate themselves, and live together in clans. The larger clans pro-

sume on their numerical strength, and seize the best lands, and the most useful streams. They insult both the men and women of the smaller clans, whenever they go in or out. And, when disputes arise about graves and debts, they proceed to barbarous violence, and the destruction of property; till the weaker party, from constant insult and injury, is compelled to remove from the neighbourhood. Extreme cases occur, in which the two clans commence a sort of private warfare, and kill numbers on both sides.

Third abuse.—Originating a criminal accusation against innocent persons, for the sake of extorting money. This, in the slang of the public offices, is called "planting a fir tree." Abroad there is a class of swindlers, who connect themselves with the police, and find out rich timid people, against whom they originate an accusation of housing gamblers; or keeping a brothel; or of harbouring banditti; or they bring a charge of fighting and robbing. Then they make out a list of names, and repair openly to the police, obtain, without inquiry, a warrant to bring the criminals up for trial, and forthwith proceed to seize their innocent prey. They perhaps bind them fast in the hold of a boat, or shut them up in an empty room, where they ill-use them in a hundred ways, to compel them to pay for their liberation. The ignorant and simple, being afraid of appearing before a magistrate, submit to become fish and flesh to these beasts of prey. A few, perhaps, have courage to appear, and state their case; then the accuser disappears, and the business sinks, or is laid on the shelf. These proceedings deserve the deepest detestation.

Fourth abuse.—The police runners, on receiving a warrant to summon witnesses, put themselves into a chair, attach a number of false attendants, and away they go, sometimes a great distance, to deliver the summons. On their arrival, whether the cause be trivial or important, they first demand fees for wine and flesh, and payment for the chair-bearers. Then comes the fee for the summons. If the least resistance to their demands be made, they and the chairman begin to break the furniture, raise a clamorous disturbance, insult the women, or drag away by violence the domestic animals, and sell them to pay themselves. His Excellency, therefore, disallows chairs to police-runners, and commands them to travel on foot.

Fifth abuse.—In Canton province, of late years, a great many dykes have been raised on the banks of the rivers, to take in shallows, and convert them to the purposes of agriculture. There is a class of country sharpers, called "sand-swindlers," who connect themselves with Government clerks, raise litigations on false pretences and false depositions, by which means they get the produce of new lands during the whole term of litigation, which lasts sometimes for tens or scores of years. They have been known to cut down the real owner's grain by force, and possess themselves of it,

Sixth abuse.—The police, to extort money, detain people in private houses and apply every means of annoyance and illegal torture, before they bring them up to the magistrate. This is done not only in cases where great crimes are alleged, such as murder and robbery, but also in questions about landed property, marriage, &c. Occasionally they cause the death of their prisoner, and then pretend he committed suicide, or died of acute disease; and, to slur it over, compel the kindred to receive the remains of their murdered relation and inter them.

Seventh abuse.—This last abuse refers to the exacting, by violence, disallowed fees, chiefly in collecting the land-tax. One detestable mode of extorting, by the Government agents, is, to scratch and wound their heads a little, and then to impeach for refusing the land-tax, and wounding his Majesty's officers sent to collect it, which is a capital crime, &c., &c.

We are sick of this detail of misrule and despotism, as presented by an authority not to be suspected of blackening his Government. His prohibitions will, alas! have little effect, till better principles are generally diffused among all classes. Extortion of disallowed fees, by violence, is what all strangers who land or embark at Macao, are annually subject to; and not only strangers, but also resident senior commercial agents of the first respectability, are not exempt from rude aggression and insult, by coolies and the lowest custom-house retainers. Happily, we are not usually liable to the *fire-room* heated to suffocation in summer, and to the private torture, beyond the rigour of legal torture, by the basest agents of a cruel police. Still the names of the legally murdered gunner, and the unconvicted strangled Terranova, should not soon be forgotten. Their fate speaks volumes against the Native police and criminal justice, and reflects but little honour on the mother countries, who seem to care for nothing so distant, provided they obtain fees, and amass revenue.

Torture,

Whether to obtain confessions of guilt, or to exasperate or prolong the period of death, has happily been entirely banished from the British Isles, and has never been admitted in the Government of Briton's descendants in the Western World. Christendom is nearly exempt from its injustice and cruelty; and in India, too, under British rule, it has no place.

In China, the laws still permit it, to a defined extent, and the magistrate often inflicts it, contrary to law. Compressing the ancles of men between wooden levers, and the fingers of women with a small apparatus, on the same principle, is the most usual form. But there are many other devices suggested and practised, contrary to law; and in every part of the empire, for some years past, there have been many instances of suspected persons, or those

falsely accused, being tortured till death ensued. In the province, an appeal is now before the Emperor, against a magistrate who tortured a man to death, to extort a confession of knowledge, and we have just heard, from Kwang-se province, that on the 11th of the 11th moon, one Netayuen, belonging to Canton, having received an appointment for his high degree attainment to the magistracy of a Heen district, in a fit of drunkenness, subjected a young man, on his bridal day, to the torture, because he would not resign the band of music which he had engaged to supply, according to law and usage, his intended wife to his father's house. The young man's name was Kwanfa. He died under the torture, and the affrighted magistrate went and hanged himself.

A Chinese Prison.

Prisoners who have money to spend, can be accommodated with private apartments, cards, servants, and every luxury. The prisoners' chains and fetters are removed from their bodies, and suspended against the wall, till the hour of going the rounds occurs; after that ceremony is over, the fetters are again placed where they hurt nobody. But those who have not money to bribe the keepers, are in a woeful condition. Not only is every alleviation of their sufferings removed, but actual infliction of punishment is added, to extort money to buy "burnt-offerings" (of paper) to the god of the jail, as the phrase is. For this purpose the prisoners are tied up, or rather hung up, and flogged. At night, they are fettered down to a board, neck, wrists, and ankles, amidst ordure and filth, whilst the rats, unmolested, are permitted to gnaw their limbs! This place of torment is proverbially called, in ordinary speech, "Te-yuk," a term equivalent to the worst sense of the word Hell.

Dialects of China:

In an empire so large, every province of which is equal to a little kingdom, it is natural to expect a variety of dialects. In this part of China, we met with three that are spoken extensively, the Mandarin, the Canton, and the Fokien dialects. The Mandarin is the language of the Court, of Government officers, and of the learned, throughout the empire. It is spoken by the people generally, in Peking, in Nankin, in Tszeechuen, and other provinces. There are considerable varieties in it. The reigning family of Tartars have introduced a Tartar-Chinese pronunciation. They use *ch* for *k*, as to make the name of the capital of China, Peiching, and sometimes Pehsing, instead of Peking, or Peking. And there is a sort of cockney slang, spoken by all those who inhabit the metropolis, which is imitated by the fashionable throughout the empire.

The Fokien dialect, or that spoken by the inhabitants of Fokien province, and by most of the settlers on Java, and in the straits of Malacca, is very peculiar. They not only pronounce the Chinese

characters differently from the Mandarin tongue, but have a number of peculiar words and phrases. Mr. Medhurst, an English Missionary on Java, who speaks Chinese admirably, has written a Dictionary of this dialect, which the late Sir Stamford Raffles had intended to have printed at the Singapore Institution; but his death, and the consequent failure of the Institution, have put an end to that design.

The Canton dialect, or that of the province in which we live, differs from the Mandarin chiefly in a different pronunciation of the same words or characters. There are also some local phrases and idioms, but the Canton dialect approaches nearer to the general language of the empire than the Fokien.

We have debated with ourselves, whether to use, in "The Canton Register," the Mandarin pronunciation of words, or the Canton dialect, and feel greatly inclined to prefer the latter; because the people who come mostly in contact with Europeans, speak only this dialect. And, should Dr. Morrison succeed in reducing the Canton dialect to writing, which he is attempting in an alphabetical Dictionary, to be printed in Roman letters, at the Honourable Company's press, the acquisition of it will become comparatively easy. For the names of places in China and Tartary, the spelling of D'Anville and Du Halde, had probably better be retained; but, in the province of Canton, the names of places, in the common dialect of the neighbourhood, seems best.

The Register.

It having been suggested to us by several of our subscribers, that a Number of the Register once a week would be acceptable to the public, and being desirous by every means in our power to merit public approbation, and extend the usefulness of our paper, we propose in future to publish extra numbers as often as our circumstances will permit. In them we shall continue our commercial remarks, but give a Price Current only once every fourteen days, according to our original engagement. Until we advance further in our undertaking, and our mechanical means are rendered more complete, the extra numbers will be supplied to subscribers gratis; at least, till the six months at first subscribed be completed.

We have determined to what extent we should admit paragraphs unfolding the disgusting depravity which exists in the empire of China. We by no means search for such things, but have solicited information on virtuous and pleasant topics, whenever such can be found. It is our object to furnish a faithful picture of China, not only for amusement, but for moral and philosophical purposes, that the student of human nature may see how the institutions, opinions, and usages of this country, operate on the morals and peace of society.

Much error has been propagated in the world by the superficial information sent forth by those who can only look on the surface of society, and who see men only in a sort of holiday dress.

'The diffusion of truth is our final object; and, to do this, we ought not to suppress any part of the evidence which comes before us. If we must sometimes narrate abominable actions, we shall not do it with levity of spirit, nor indelicacy of language. We cannot please all tastes; but we desire the approbation of the virtuous, the sober, and the reflecting part of mankind. When we must depict vice, and tell of its miseries, we would neither cherish apathy nor indulge in sport, but rather blush for the degradation of our species, and compassionate the unhappy perpetrators of crime, and victims of guilt.'

State Ceremonies.

'On the 5th instant, being the 20th day of the moon's age, at eight o'clock in the morning, all the officers of the city, the salt merchants, Hong merchants, &c., were assembled at the Governor-General's, and the deputy Governor's, to congratulate them on re-opening the seals of office, after the new year's holidays. A salute was fired, the gates of the great court thrown open, and their Excellencies appeared in full dress, turned their faces to the Imperial throne in Peking, performed the grand state ceremony of homage, and, kneeling, struck their foreheads against the earth thrice three times. The seals were then opened, and the secretaries, clerks, &c., &c., in rank and file, knelt down, knocking head, and congratulating their Excellencies.

'During the holidays, the first three officers in the province,—viz., the Tsungtuk, or Governor-General; the Fooone, or Soother of the People, a sort of Deputy-Governor, and the Tseongkwan, or Leader of the Army, who is the Tartar-General and commandant of the garrison:—these three, during the recess, have dined alternately at each other's houses, and caroused often till midnight. Not satisfied with this, they have made parties to the Whitecloud-hall, behind the city, and Naoutsan "bothered the wine," that is, drunk tumultuously, a proceeding that has greatly scandalised the inhabitants, who think such entertainments unbecoming the rank and dignity of these great people.

'There is a new Judge expected, a most severe man, nicknamed "the iron-faced old tiger," who will, they say, put a stop to all these carousals. The new Hoppo, on his way from Court, has stopped to spend his new year at Hangchow. It is deemed unlucky to enter an office during the first moon of the year, and there are few ships in the port; hence he has intentionally delayed his arrival, which may not take place for a month. It is said, metaphorically, that this gentleman is very hungry, and will

requires silver and gold to satisfy his appetite. The embarrassed state of one of the Hong merchants gives unpleasant occupation to the Governor, who holds the Hoppo's seals; but he has resolved to do nothing till the Hoppo himself arrives, when the disagreeable work will be transferred to him.

Tour round the City Walls.

'It is well known that the Chinese consider their walled towns in the same light as fortifications are regarded in Europe, and disallow foreigners entering them, excepting on special occasions. But there is no law against walking in the suburbs. Usage has, however, limited the Europeans in China to very small bounds. Some persons occasionally violate them, and attempt a longer walk. Once round the city walls has frequently been effected, but always at the risk of a scuffle, an assault and battery, from the idle and mischievous among the Native population. On former occasions, some of the foreign tourists have returned to the factories relieved of the burden of their watches and clothes. An English baronet was once, on his passage round, robbed of his watch, and stripped either almost, or entirely naked.

'A few days ago, a party of three started at six o'clock in the morning, and performed the circuit at about eight, with impunity. The distance round the walls, they estimated to be nine miles. A few days afterwards, two persons set off in the evening, for a walk under the city walls; but they were not so fortunate. They were violently assaulted by a rabble of men and boys, the former of whom pursued them with bludgeons, brickbats, and stones, which not only inflicted severe contusions, but really endangered their lives. The two foreigners were obliged to face about, and fight and run alternately the distance of several miles.

'We, who know the hostile feelings of the population, are not surprised at the occurrence, and rather congratulate the tourists that they effected their escape so well. We notice the affair to put others on their guard; and (as the Chinese say) if they should get into a similar scrape, they cannot blame us for not warning them of their danger.

News from Peking.

'Our accounts from Peking, dated the 6th of the 11th moon, contain nothing but changes and promotions of public officers. The Tartar Generalissimo Changling had recommended a larger batch of meritorious officers than the Emperor thought fit to recognise; and the memorial was rejected. A Deputy Governor requested a particular appointment, that he might be near his old mother; but his Majesty considered the application a bad precedent, and for that reason alone rejected it. In Shantung province, a Heen magistrate, subject to phlegm and melancholy, hanged himself one night; and his wife, being unwilling that his untimely death should

be published, induced a secretary to report that his master had suddenly died of an acute disease. The truth was discovered, and suspicion excited that there was some secret cause. But, as no inquiry being instituted, nothing of a criminal nature was found.

Revenue and War Department.

Letters from Peking state, that, in consequence of repeated applications from Ningmching, the Governor-General of the provinces on the North-west frontier, his Majesty has sanctioned the extension of the term, which commissions in the army and militia service may be sold for, another half-year, that is, till the close of the 8th moon of the present year. Government has also thrown open the door to receive volunteers, to superintend the transport of supplies and ammunition to the army, in order to relieve the regular and permanent officers of the Crown. Those who wish to "throw in their labours" in this patriotic cause, are required to repair to Kansuh-province, (provincial dialect, Kumsuk.) On the strength of this new arrangement, a Chinese gentleman, well known by Europeans, has set off post-haste, to offer his services in Western Tartary. Popular rumour has all along affirmed that the rebel Changkihur had Russian assistance; and the gentleman referred to says, that he has applied to Russia for a hundred thousand men. It is not at all improbable, that the Tartar pretender had some Russian officers in his service. Those who help a man to a throne, naturally expect to come in for something good; and to put forth the hope of Russian assistance will serve the rebel's purpose, in causing China the expense and trouble of keeping up an army in Bucharia.

Melancholy Case.

Similar ones said not to be unfrequent.—From a Correspondent. The sands on Canton river, formerly occupied by poor boat-people, are now entirely converted into receptacles for public women. Of these, many are not there by their own consent. Some have been sold by their parents to improper persons by mistake; some have been stolen in childhood, and some have been sold by order of Government. A great variety exists in their circumstances. Not more than one or two out of ten wish to be there.

In Achaou's Bungalow are thirty or forty prostitutes. Among these was one Akee; she was a native of Heongshan. In childhood her parents sold her to be a domestic slave; at the age of thirteen, her master resold her, by mistake, to descend to the river and become a prostitute. She resolved to follow the virtuous, but found none to rescue her. At last, the son of one Wang, from the province of Honam, a youth of about twenty years of age, was beloved by her, and she by him. They covenanted never to separate till their heads were white with age. But the son of Wang

was dead, but separate. The youth did not dare to tell his parents. Still the lovers would not separate. Day passed away after day, till their power was empty, and the mother bawd greatly emolumented their existence. Every resource having failed, they both took poison, and died. After death, they were found in each other's embraces inseparably joined. Wang's parents heard of it. They came and wrapped both the corpses in one shroud, placed them in one coffin, and interred them in the same grave.

This melancholy occurrence took place only a few days ago.

Chinese Language.

That knowledge is power, has, since the days of Bacon, been received as an incontrovertible maxim. It must, however, often be understood with certain limitations; for knowledge, under many circumstances, is utterly unavailable against physical force; yet, other things being equal, knowledge always confers a degree of power far superior to ignorance; and knowledge, like all other power, may be employed either to do good or harm, according to the character of the agent who possesses it. Knowledge possessed by the virtuous and benevolent, confers perhaps a greater power of doing good to mankind, than either wealth or office. It is, in the first place, a great benefit to the parties who possess it, and it gives a great ability of extending benefit to others. There is an abstract or general knowledge, which is universally useful; but, to be useful in a given department, a specific knowledge becomes requisite.

The unsocial non-intercourse feeling of the Governments and people of China and Japan, has long been considered as an evil, both in the moral and commercial world. May not this have been perpetuated by the almost universal ignorance, existing among Europeans, of the languages of these countries? Of the foreigners who have visited them, for the last century, not one in a hundred has been able to converse with the people or Government, but through the medium of a few interested and generally ignorant Natives, who have spoken only a jargon, composed of a few words, to express the names and prices of the articles of commerce. The simple act of buying and selling requires but a brief vocabulary, and large fortunes may indeed be made without knowing the language of the people men deal with; but that, on the liberal principles of general commerce, an intimate knowledge of the language of the people dealt with would confer an useful power, can scarcely be doubted. It is remarkable how merchants to China have, for so long a period, remained generally incapable of collecting information, for example, through a narrow and interested medium, concerning the products and the prices of the interior, and have remained usually ignorant of the laws and institutions, even in matters affecting human life, except as interpreted by malicious and time-serving magistrates. When suffering under ex-

actions, delays, or capricious extortions, they have, for the most part, been perfectly incapable of representing the facts to superior authorities, or of making such appeals as the laws of the land permit to the poorest Chinese subject.

The cause frequently assigned for this state of things, is the difficulty of acquiring the Chinese language. Admitting that Chinese is more difficult to Europeans than any of the languages of the Western World, that circumstance alone is not sufficient to account for it. The true causes have been, a want of patronage on the part of senior merchants, who often regret too late their ignorance, and a love of ease too incident to the young and inexperienced.

The European nations have generally carried on their commerce with China by exclusive Companies, and it might be supposed that the reputed vices of monopolies were sufficient to account for the fact; but the private agents in China, who have existed for many years, and the American merchants, who have bought and sold largely, have not done more for the increase of knowledge than the old Companies.

The Chinese Government and merchants have always thrown every possible difficulty in the way of learning their language, from a belief that ignorance is weakness; and the foreigners have never acted in concert, to establish a school for Chinese among themselves, nor have they ever associated on the spot for literary or scientific purposes. Commerce, literature, and science, have as yet scarcely ever afforded sufficient stimulus, to propel isolated individuals onwards through the difficulties of the Chinese language. It is to religious zeal chiefly, that we are indebted for our original and best Chinese scholars. The means of acquiring Chinese by books, since the printing of De Guigne's and Morrison's Dictionaries, and of Grammars by Marshman, Morrison, and Remusat, are now considerably increased. The Anglo-Chinese college, too, affords the aid of European masters, which is a material requisite to a beginner. But that institution is at a distance from those who are most interested in acquiring the language. A European academy in China itself, for the acquisition of the language and literature of the country, is still a desideratum. Such an institution, conducted on liberal and benevolent principles, would afford most important aids to commerce, to arts, to science, and to the moral well-being of society. If the Autocrat of Russia maintains a college in the Capital, why should not the united foreign commerce of Canton be able to originate and perpetuate a similar, and perhaps a more efficient institution, on the southern frontier of the empire? The project requires only good feeling and good sense among the commercial community of Canton, to create and foster a Chinese academy for foreign students. "Knowledge is power, and union is strength."

TESTIMONIES OF DIFFERENT AUTHORS, RESPECTING THE COLossal STATUE OF CERES, PLACED IN THE VESTIBULE OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY AT CAMBRIDGE; WITH A SHORT ACCOUNT OF ITS REMOVAL FROM ELEUSIS.

Πλάτωνα δὲ Σόλωνα καὶ πλείων ἐπικροτοῖς ἢν ἀπὸ τοῦ ΠΕΡΙΕΛΙΑΣ.

Plutarch in Pericl.

THE Mystic Temple at Eleusis * was erected by Pericles for the solemnities of the Festival of Ceres; and Ictinus, the architect of the Parthenon at Athens, composed the plan of the edifice. Every thing that the arts of Greece could afford in the period of their greatest splendour, aided by the genius, the taste, and the profusion of their great patron, was lavished upon this building. The effect of its beauty and prodigious magnitude is described as exciting a degree of astonishment, which could only be equalled by the awe its sanctity created. Its materials were of the white marble of Mount Pentelicus. The most celebrated men, in the various arts necessary for its completion, were employed to give the highest perfection to the works. † In this wonderful combination of talents, Phidias presided; ‡ so that it was likely to present a monument both as a whole, and in the detail of its minutest decorations, § of whatever in sculpture or architecture the world had seen most perfect.

At the end of the fourth century this beautiful superstructure fell a sacrifice to Gothic devastation. || Among the ruins of Greece, there is not an example of any building on which barbaric rage has been vented with more studious schemes of destruction than on the Temple of Ceres at Eleusis. It is probable the early Christians contributed to efface, if not to annihilate, the remains of this Temple, by the detestation in which they held the rites there celebrated. Yet neither the ravages of the Goths, nor the mistaken zeal of the teachers of the Gospel, have altogether availed. Its destroyers;

* Now Lepsina, consisting of a few huts, 12 miles north-west of Athens.—Macbean and Crutwell.

† Strabo, Lib. 9. Vitruv. in Præfat. Lib. 7. Plutarch in Pericl., Vol I. p. 159.

‡ 'Whose extraordinary powers,' says Quintilian, 'were more happily displayed in the representation of deities than mortals.'—Quintilian, lib. 12. cap. 10.

§ 'The genius of Phidias,' says the elder Pliny, 'preserved its superiority even in the minutest details.'—Plin. Hist. Nat., lib. 36., cap 5.

|| During the invasion of Alaric the Goth, who passed the straits of Thermopylæ, at the head of 200,000 men, and laid waste the fairest realms of ancient Greece. The whole territory of Attica, from the promontory of Sunium to the town of Megara, was desolated by the march of his army.

ignorant even of the arts necessary for the accomplishment of such work, have been contented to injure what they were unable to remove. Enough remains to impress the mind with an idea of its immense magnitude and labour; the pavement, the capitals of several of the columns, shafts subverted and broken, bases and pedestals, all of the most exquisite workmanship are still seen; and many a mutilated fragment at once attests the lamentable effects of superstition, and the unrivalled glory of the arts of Greece.

Thirteen centuries had elapsed, during which period this magnificent edifice was yielding a daily sacrifice to barbarians, when it became first noticed by an English traveller. The learned and accurate Wheler, in his journey from Athens to Corinth, visited Eleusis, and thus describes the appearance of the Temple:

'The first thing we came unto was the stately Temple of Ceres, now laid prostrate on the ground, I cannot say not having one stone upon another, for it lieth all in a confused heap together; the beautiful pillars buried in the rubbish of its dejected roof and walls; and its goodly carved and polished cornishes used with no more respect than the worst stone of the pavement. It lies in such a rude and disorderly manner, that it is not possible to judge of its ancient form; only it appeared to have been built of most beautiful white marble, and no less admirable work. Some chapters we saw of the Ionic Order, being three feet nine inches and a half diameter, which belonged to pillars of two feet and eleven inches diameter. I took the dimensions of a very beautiful corner-stone likewise, being six feet five inches square, two feet one inch and a quarter thick. We observed many other large stones among them, carved with wheat ears, and bundles of poppy, bound together, being the characters of Ceres.*

But a very remarkable discovery was made upon this occasion of the bust, or statue, of the Goddess herself, represented by the author in an engraving so rude, as hardly to be reconciled to the original figure, if it were not for the descriptions and the dimensions which accompany it.† It has this inscription: 'SIMULACRUM CERERIS ELEUSINÆ FRAGMENTUM.' The circumstances which amidst all the havoc of the Temple, have led to the preservation of this figure, will afterwards appear. In the mean time the author's testimony to the identity of the statue is added.

* Hard by, a little more south-west, among the ruins of old walls, we found the remains of the goddess herself; viz. a part of her statue from the head to below the waist, made of very white marble, of admirable work, and perhaps of no less a master than

* *Wheler's Journey into Greece*, p. 427, 428. Wheler left Athens on his journey to Eleusis in 1676. The statue of Ceres was discovered by him on Shrove Tuesday the 5th of February of that year.

† *Ibid.*

Praxiteles himself, as that was in her temple at Athens. It is a colossus, at least, three times bigger than nature. She is not about the waist, and two belts cross each other on her shoulders. Her breasts appear very natural; but her face is disfigured. Her hair falls back upon her shoulders, and is tied together near her neck. Upon her head is a basket, carved on the outside with clusters of wheat ears, bundles of poppies, roses, and vessels. For it is she that was said first to have taught the Grecians how to sow corn at Eleusis; and poppies were dedicated to her. *Bommalas* pretends to be forbidden to write her mysteries by a *demum* rit being held unlawful for any to hear, see, or know them; but those that were initiated in them, and none to reveal them. But *Mimattius Felix* knew them, and shows them to have been horribly wicked and diabolical, which was the reason of their secrecy. I designed the statue, perhaps, well enough to give some rough, imperfect idea, of it but not to express the exquisite beauties of the work. A little higher, on the brow of the hill, we found a large basis for a statue which we judge belonged to that of the Goddess. There was written upon it only *ΝΟΥΜΙΛΙΟΥ ΙΕΡΟΚΗΡΕΥΣ*, *Noumiliius Nigrinus*, Priest, which, perhaps, was the name of him that erected the statue. But that which is most remarkable about it, is a small basso relievo, representing the procession of Ceres, used to be made by the Athenians, in memory of her going about the world in search of her daughter Proserpine, stolen by Pluto after she had lighted her torches at Mount Etna. The whole multitude carried flambeaus, then called *ἀστιά*; and to them belonged officers whom they called *ἀστυνοχοί*; being, I suppose, the chief regulators of that ceremony. *

To the testimony of Wheler must be subjoined that of *Spon*; the companion of his travels, who, with a much more accurate engraving of the statue, has given, as might be expected, a description in the same sentiments, and nearly in the same words, as those of his friend and associate. Having mentioned the condition in which he found the temple, he says, 'Nous y remarquâmes un chapiteau Ionique très beau et médiocrement gros, et le reste de la statue de Cérès de très beau marbre blanc parfaitement bien travaillé: aussi étoit elle peut-être de Praxitèles, comme celle qui étoit à Athènes dans le temple qui luy étoit dédié. Ce qu'elle porte sur la tête est extraordinaire; c'est comme un panier, autour duquel sont gravez des épis de bled avec des fleurs, parce qu'elle avoit enseigné la culture de la terre à ceux d'Eleusis, et des javelles

* This Pedestal is not now to be seen at Eleusis. A report prevailed at Athens, in the year 1801, perhaps without foundation, that it had been removed to Parma, of one of the other universities in Italy. Whoever compares Wheler's rude representations of Grecian sculpture with the original monuments, will perceive and regret the injury the arts have sustained in the loss of this beautiful bas-relief.

de pavots qui luy estoient dediez. Je la crayonnay assez bien pour vous en donner quelque idée, mais assez mal pour vous en faire comprendre les beautez.* The author then proceeds to describe the pedestal mentioned by Wheler.

The next traveller of note is Pococke, whose veracity is proverbial.† In his journey from Athens to the Isthmus of Corinth, arriving at Eleusis,‡ he thus speaks of the Temple and Statue of Ceres: 'At the north foot of the hill, on an advanced ground, there are many imperfect ruins, pieces of pillars and entablatures; and doubtless it is the spot of the Temple of Ceres and Proserpine.' 'At the Temple of Ceres I saw the large bust or upper part of a statue, supposed to have been designed for that Goddess; it is so large that it measured at the shoulders five feet and a half broad; there is a circular sort of ornament on the head above two feet deep, the middle part of which is adorned with foliages of oak, as mentioned by travellers, but the face is much disfigured.'||

From Pococke, omitting the observations of a few foreigners, whose descriptions would appear more like plagiarism than original matter, we come to the work of Dr. Chandler, of Oxford.§ It is not easy to reconcile his topography of the Temple of Ceres with the descriptions of the travellers who had preceded him, or who have since visited Eleusis. But he gives a long account of the Mystic Temple,* and adds, that the site was beneath the brow, at the east end of the hill, and encompassed by the fortress. 'Some marbles,' says he, 'which are uncommonly massive, and some pieces of the columns, remain on the spot. The breadth of the cell is about 150 feet; the length, including the pronaos and portico, is 216 feet. The diameter of the columns, which are fluted six inches from the bottom of the shafts, is six feet, and more than six inches. About three-fourths of the cottages are within the precincts of the Mystic Temple.'

At a small distance from the north end of the enclosure is a heap of marble, consisting of fragments of the Doric and Ionic orders; remains, it is likely, of the Temples of Diana Propylea, and of Neptune, and of the Propyleum or gateway. Wheler saw some large stones carved with wheat-ears and bundles of poppy. Near it is a bust of a colossal statue of excellent workmanship, maimed,

* 'Voyage de Grece et du Levant,' &c. par Spon. Edit. Amsterdam, 1679, p. 216.

† The requisites essential to the perfection of a traveller are said to be, — the 'Veracity of Pococke, the learning of Shaw, the pencil of Norden, the enthusiasm of Savary, and the perseverance of Bruce.'

‡ On the 4th of September, 1739.

|| Pococke's 'Description of the East,' Vol. II., Part 2., pp. 170, 171.

§ Dr. Chandler was at Eleusis on the 30th of March, 1766.

* 'Travels in Greece,' by Richard Chandler, D.D., p. 189.

and the face disfigured: the breadth at the shoulders, as measured by Pococke, five feet and a half, and the basket on the head above two feet deep. It probably represented Proserpine.* A tradition prevails, that if the broken statue be removed, the fertility of the land will cease. Achmet Aga was fully possessed with this superstition, and declined permitting us to dig or measure there, until I had overcome his scruples by a present of a handsome snuff-box, containing several zechins, or pieces of gold.†

Such are the testimonies and opinions of the most celebrated men who have visited Eleusis, respecting the statue now placed in the public library of this university. To their authority may be added that of Montfaucon, as given in the translation of his work, by a late fellow of Trinity College.‡

‘A trunk of a statue of Ceres which remains yet in the Temple of Ceres Eleusinia, near Athens, though the face is disfigured and broke, hath on its head a crown of an extraordinary shape, and which seemed to rise up like a tower, or turrets, before it was injured by time; the figure is adorned with ears of corn and flowers.’

Supported by these authorities, the Abbé Barthelemy thus alludes to the statue, in his account of Eleusis: ‘Ou se trouvoit cette statue dont l’éclat éblouissoit les nouveaux initiés.’||

The resemblance which this statue has been supposed to bear to the Cariatides in the Pandrosium of the Acropolis at Athens, has given rise to an opinion that it represents a Canephora. §

The statement of a few facts may put this matter out of all doubt.

1. The Canephoræ were certain Athenian virgins, whose office it was to carry a basket called *kanoun*, at the Panathenæ, the Dionysia, and some other solemnities. This basket contained necessaries for the celebration of the holy rites, Mola Salsa, the knife, or other instrument to kill the victims, and the crowns. They were hence called *Κανηφόροι*.* Meursius gives the same account of them in his description of the Panathenæ; † and Cicero, mentioning two small bronze figures of the Canephoræ carried off by Verres, also ex-

* No reason is given for this conjecture.

† Chandler’s ‘Travels in Greece,’ p. 191.

‡ ‘Montfaucon’s Antiquities,’ translated by David Humphreys, M.A. Vol. I., p. 52.

|| ‘Voyage d’Anacharsis,’ Tom. V., p. 537.

§ ‘Museum Worsleyanum,’ Vol. I., p. 95.

* ‘Archæologia Græca,’ Vol. I., pp. 226, 383, 422.

† Post hos Virginea sequebantur, cum canistris; in quibus ea, quæ ad sacra facienda necessaria: unde illæ *Κανηφόροι* appellatæ.—Hesychius. *Κανηφόροι. ἐν ταῖς πομπαῖς αἱ ἐν ἀξιώματι παρθένοι ἐκανηφόρουν, ὥσπερ καὶ ἐν ταῖς Παναθηναῖς.*—Meursii *Panathenæa*, cap. 23.

plains the meaning of their appellation. * It is to be remarked that the words 'manibus sublati,' in the description of Cicero, distinguish the Canephoræ by an attitude which does not correspond with the appearance of the statue from Eleusis. Ceres, as in that figure, was often represented with the left arm extended. Her left hand generally held ears of corn, but sometimes a patera. The right supported a sceptre, poppies or fruit. † The canisters or baskets of the Canephoræ were also filled upon certain occasions with flowers, and other vegetable productions. At the rites of Bacchus, the *Kava* were of gold, and contained fruit. ‡ Canephorian festivals are not yet entirely abolished; remains of them are still observed in the Greek Islands. ‡

2. Much error has arisen from having confounded the Canephoræ with the *Κιστοφόροι*, and this circumstance is mentioned by a scholiast in a note to Callimachus. || 'Perperam confundunt viri docti *Κανηφόρους* et *Κιστοφόρους*. In calathis sive canistris portabantur flores et spicæ nobilibus virginibus, in cistis vero a mulieribus sacra mystica.' The *Κιστοφόροι* were employed at the Eleusinian festival in following the procession of the holy basket on the fourth day of the celebration of the mysteries. In their baskets were sesamin, carded wool, some grains of salt, a serpent, pomegranates, reeds, ivy boughs, a sort of cakes called *Φθois*, and poppies. § They are distinguished, therefore, from the Canephoræ both by their burden and their character. Neither does the description of them correspond with the statue of Ceres, which bears on its breast the Medusa, and on its head the holy basket, adorned by symbols, many of which are not now to be explained, but which bear evident re-

* Erant aenea præterea duo signa, non maxima, verum eximia venustate, virginali habitu, atque vestitu, quæ manibus sublati sacra quædam, more Atheniensium virginum reposita in capitibus sustinebant. Canephoræ ipsæ vocabantur.—Cicero in Ver. lib. 4.

† See the Antiquities engraved in the Ernesti Edition of Callimachus, vol. I. p. 232. The bas relief found at Athens by Wheler, p. 405, Edit. Lond. 1682; and the various representations of Ceres in Montfaucon, and other authors.

‡ Archæologia Græca, v. I. p. 383.

|| At the beginning of the vintage, in the Isle of Syra, the young unmarried women are seen returning from their labours at sun-set in procession, bearing on their heads baskets filled with grapes and flowers the vine, with its leaves falling almost to the ground, and twined elegantly about their persons. The noise of their songs is heard from afar the young men then go out to meet them, and join the chorus as they enter the town.

§ Callimach. Hym. et Epigram. Edit. Ernesti, v. I. p. 233. in Schol.

* Archæologia Græca, v. I. p. 392. The words of Meursius are, 'in his (cistis) reconditæ sesamides, pyramides, lanæ elaborate, multæ distincta umbilicis, micæ aliquot salis, draco, mala Punica, cardifera, hederæ, placentæ, et papavera.'—Meursii Eleusinia, c. 35, p. 71

ference to the sacred mysteries. Among these principally appear the lotus, exactly as pictured on the Greek vases. * The gorgon terrors of initiation were typified by the Medusa; represented, according to the most ancient form, with the tongue exposed, as on the medals of Parium, † on several pateras and lamps, and on a small votive offering, lately found at Delphis, and now in this university.

3. The statue of Ceres at Eleusis was distinguished by the *Kαλαθον*, or Holy Basket, which she bore on her head, and which, during the celebration of the mysteries, was carried in solemn procession. She is thus represented on a medal of the Ptolemies ‡ on the bas relief, engraved in 'Wheler's Travels; § on the colossal statue brought from Italy, now in the possession of Mr. Townly; and on various antique gems, lamps, and vases. A statue of Ceres is engraved in Montfaucon, after a drawing by Mons. Le Brun, in which the *Kαλαθον* is represented plain, without ornaments. It holds in one hand a patera, and in the other poppies. § The original was at Rome. If the upper part of the figure only had been

* See the works of D'Hancarville, Sir W. Hamilton, &c. The capitals of the Ionic columns in the portico of the Temple of Minerva Polias, at Athens, have the same representation of the Lotus. See Stuart's Athens, vol., 2, c. 2, pl. 11, fig. 1.

† The History of this extraordinary symbol has never been satisfactorily explained. Antiquarians have been long puzzled to account for its introduction on medals, gems, pateras, lamps, &c. The Eleusinian statue proves the cause of its application. As an appendage to the breast of that figure, it was evidently sacred to Ceres; and if additional proof were wanted, it is afforded by the Parian medals, which, with this image in front, have sometimes ears of corn, the cornucopia, the ox, and other symbols sacred to Ceres, on their reverses. Hence the propriety of such a representation, on pateras, and other vessels used in sacrifices, on gems worn by the priests of Ceres, or by the initiated. Medals of cities, acknowledging Ceres as their protecting deity, would bear the medusa as those of Athens did the owl; those of Rhodes, the pomegranate; and those of Chios, the sphinx. The practice still remains in Italy and other countries, where coins bear the symbols of tutelary saints.

Thus far, supported by evidence, we advance with certainty in explaining the cause of its appearance on Grecian antiquities. Its original signification, avowedly mysterious, embraces a larger field of inquiry and more conjecture than is consistent with the present undertaking. Admitting the common opinion, that it represented the head of the medusa, its purport has been already suggested. But if a different explanation were allowed, it probably comprehended an intimation of that principle of which the Goddess herself was the personified representative, in her character of Luna.

‡ In the collection of the late Dr. Hunter.

§ Page 405, folio edition, London, 1682.

§ Montfaucon, vol. I. plate 43, fig. 4. Edit., Paris, 1772.

discovered, it might with equal reason have been called a Cane-phora.

The beautiful hymn of Callimachus to Ceres opens at the moment in which the *Καλαθιον* is descending for the procession on the fourth day. * The women are called upon to hail its approach, and the profane to cast their looks to the ground, not venturing to contemplate so much sanctity.

Ceres being the same with Isis, † the *Καλαθιον*, or turret, upon her head, is in itself a symbolical representation of the lotus. Of this we have sufficient proof, by observing the various modes in which the lotus has been represented upon the heads of Isis, and the *Καλαθος*, or *Καλαθιον*, upon the heads of Ceres. In many instances they will be found to be one and the same symbol. A very ancient and remarkable statue of Ceres was published by Fabretti, and is engraved in Montfaucon, where the lotus appears exactly as on the figures of Isis, found in Egypt. It seems an established truth, that Isis was the Venus of Cyprus, the Minerva of Athens, the Cybele of the Phrygians, the Ceres of Eleusis, the Proserpine of Sicily, the Diana of Crete, and the Bellona of the Romans. Indeed, in proportion as we advance to the source of those opinions which gave birth to the Pagan Mythology, the confusion which, at first view, seemed to bewilder the inquirer, begins to disappear. The most ancient expositors of heathen fables teach us to believe that all their divinities were modifications of the active and passive principle of creation. The Giver of Light might be worshipped as the sun, and the receiver was rationally typified by the moon. Once in possession of this clue, the complicate labyrinth of Paganism, whether surveyed in Egypt, in Greece, in Persia, or the more distant eastern countries, may be explored. The agency of light upon a chaotic fluid, that important truth, recorded in the annals of every people, and resulting from the latest researches into the history of nature, was known to all nations. Hence the transition is natural to those various titles and personifications which become so numerous. Sol, Mithras, Osiris, Ammon, and Belus, were multiplied to such an extent, that Varro relates there were no less than three hundred different modes by which Jupiter alone was represented. The same may be said of the personifications of the passive principle. The Magna Mater was Isis, Luna, Juno, Vesta, Ceres, Proserpine, Minerva, or Diana, according as their respective rites and appellations suited the

* *Τῷ Καλάθῳ Καθιδόντος*, &c. The old scholiast to these words, relates that Ptolemy Philadelphus introduced the procession of the *Καλαθιον* at Alexandria. (Callim. Hym. &c. Edit. Ernesti. p. 232.) The rites of Ceres were thus conveyed to the country from which they originally came.

† Herodot. Lib. II. c. 59. *Ἰσις δὲ ἐστὶ κατὰ τὴν Ἑλληνῶν γλῶσσαν Δημήτηρ*. Hist. des Inscriptions, vol. 16, 20, 21, 86, 87.

customs and the language of the countries in which they were worshipped.

A representation of Isis has been engraved at Paris, bearing on its head a crown, or turret, which approaches to the *Kalablon* of Ceres; and this turret is distinguished by the particular symbol which is placed near the vase in front of the *Kalablon*.

To these facts an observation may be added. Historians have offered no reason to believe that the statues of the *Canephora* adorned the Mystic Temple at Eleusis. The researches which have taken place among its ruins afford additional proof against such an opinion. Not a single fragment of that nature has been discovered; and such statues, when annexed to buildings, were never single.

It is now above an hundred and twenty-seven years since this statue was first discovered by Wheler, and made known to the world by the publication of his travels. During all that period, various attempts were made for its removal. The Eleusinians, whose superstitions * respecting it were so great that Dr. Chandler paid a large sum for permission to dig near it, relate, that as often as foreigners came to remove the statue, some disaster ensued. They believed that the arm of any person who offered to touch it with violence, would drop off; and said, that once being taken from her station by the French, she returned back, in the night, to her former situation. Nevertheless, different ambassadors and envoys residing at Constantinople made application for its removal, and failed of success. Diplomatic intrigue, the artifices and meddling cunning of the Greek Consuls, and most of all the enormous weight of the statue, in a country where mechanical aid was not to be procured, frustrated their views. It is well known that Monsieur de Choiseul de Gouffier endeavoured to obtain it for the French nation; and the agents of our own ambassador arrived at Eleusis a few days after it sailed for England, attended by a janissary of the Porte, to give orders for its being added to its collection.

A short narrative of the means used by private individuals, unaided by diplomatic power or patronage, to procure for the university of which they are members this interesting monument of the arts and mythology of Greece, may not prove unwelcome.

The difficulties to be encountered were not trivial. It was first necessary to purchase the statue from the Waiwode, or Governor of Athens, who alone had power to dispose of it.† A firman was then to be obtained for its removal; the attendance of a Turkish

* It was their custom to burn a lamp before it, upon festival days.

† Those who have visited Turkey know the difficulty of making such a purchase. Among other absurd notions which the Turks, and even some of the Greeks, have about foreigners, they believe such stones are only sought for the gold they contain; and this gold, not in the form of ore, but ready coined, fine, glittering sequins.

officer to enforce the order; and a vessel capable of conveying it away. The old quay of Eleusis, consisting of immense blocks of marble, broken and disordered, required reparation. Across the chasms, where the stones were wanted, it was necessary to place pieces of timber, as temporary bridges, that the statue might be conveyed to the utmost extremity of the quay, where a sufficient depth of water would admit the approach of large boats.

When all these preliminaries were adjusted, which required equal promptness and secrecy, amidst the opposition to be expected from a herd of idle and mercenary Greeks, acting as Consuls to different nations, in what manner could a foreigner, without any mechanical aid, expect to raise a mass of that magnitude, and convey it over rocks and ruins from its station at Eleusis to the sea?

Athens afforded a rope of twisted herbs, and a few large nails. A small saw about six inches in length, an axe, and some long poles, were found at Eleusis. The stoutest of these poles were cut, and pieces nailed in a triangular form, having transverse beams at the vertex and base. Weak as this machine was, it acquired considerable strength when placed on the statue, by the weight of the transverse beams. With the remainder of the poles were made rollers, over which the machine might move. The rope was then made fast to each extremity of the transverse beams at the vertex. Simple as this contrivance was, it succeeded, when perhaps more complicate machinery might have failed; and a mass of marble, weighing near two tons, was moved over the brow of the hill, or Acropolis of Eleusis, and from thence to the sea in about nine hours.

An hundred peasants were collected from the village and neighbourhood of Eleusis, and near fifty boys. The peasants were ranged forty on each side to work at the ropes, the rest being employed with levers to raise the machine when rocks or large stones opposed its progress. The boys who were not strong enough to work at the ropes and levers, were employed in taking up the rollers as fast as the machine left them, and in placing them again in front.

But the superstition of the inhabitants of Eleusis, respecting an idol, which they all regarded as the protectress of their fields, was not the least obstacle to be overcome. On the evening preceding the removal of the statue, an accident happened which had nearly put an end to the undertaking. While the inhabitants were conversing with the Turkish officer who brought the firman from the Waiwode of Athens, an ox, loosed from its yoke, came and placed itself before the statue, and after butting with its horns for some time against the marble, ran off with considerable speed bellowing into the plain of Eleusis. Instantly a general murmur prevailed; and several women joining in the clamour, it was with difficulty any proposal could be made. 'They had been always,' they said, 'famous for their corn; and the fertility of the land would cease when the statue was removed.' These are exactly the words of

Cicero with respect to the Sicilians, when Verres removed the statue of Ceres: 'Quód, Cérere violatá, omnes cultus fructusque Cereris, in his locis interilisse arbitrantur.*

At length, however, these scruples were removed; and on the following morning, November 22, 1801, the Priest of Eleusis, arrayed in his vestments as for high mass, descended into the hollow in which the statue was partially buried, to strike the first blow with a pickaxe for the removal of the rubbish, that the people might be convinced no calamity would befall the labourers. At mid-day, the statue had reached the summit of the hill above Eleusis; and as the sun was setting, by the additional assistance of the crew of a Casiot vessel, hired to convey it away, was placed at the extremity of the ancient quay of the port.

The next day, November 23, boats were placed parallel to each other from the quay to the vessel, and planks being laid over them, a kind of stage was formed, on which the crew could more easily work the blocks to the ship. These being all brought to act at once upon the marble, it was raised and let into the hold. The vessel then sailed to Smyrna, where the statue was again moved into the *Princessa* merchantman, Captain Lee. In her passage home, this vessel was wrecked, and lost near Beachy Head; but the statue was recovered, and finally reached its destination.

WOMAN'S HEART.

SAY, what is Woman's heart?—a thing
Where all the deepest feelings spring;
A harp, whose tender chords reply
Unto the touch, in harmony;
A world, whose fairy scenes are fraught
With all the coloured dreams of thought;
A bark, that still will blindly move
Upon the treacherous seas of love.
What is its love?—a ceaseless stream,
A changeless star, an endless dream;
A smiling flower that will not die;
'A beauty—and a mystery!'
Its storms as light as April showers;
Its joys as bright as April flowers;
Its hopes as sweet as summer air,
And dark as winter its despair!

Cambridge Chronicle.

* Cicero in Verr. lib. 4, c. 51. The removal of the statues of Ceres and Triptolemus from the Temple at Etna, by Verres, is particularly applicable. '*His pulchritudo periculo, amplitudo salutis fuit, quód eorum demolitio, atque asportatio perdifficilis videbatur.*'—Lib. 4, c. 49.

ADMINISTRATION OF INDIA.

AMONG the last Indian papers received is the following correspondence, and remarks of the editor of an Indian Paper, on the subject of an article contained in the 'Quarterly Review;' which appears to us to be of sufficient general interest to be adopted, more especially as it contains strictures on a Publication of such extensive circulation and corresponding influence in England, as that Periodical :

' To the Editor of the Quarterly Review.

SIR,—We Indians are, perhaps, a "genus irritabile," and, it may be, that the delicacy of our skins, under any remarks bearing the appearance of censure, is somewhat morbid ; but, at the same time, it cannot be denied, that, of late years, we have enjoyed very excellent opportunities of exercising the virtues of patience and humility ; whilst the vituperation that has been levelled by writers of every party, by "The Quarterly," "Edinburgh," and "Westminster Review," by "Blackwood," "The Monthly," and "The Oriental Herald," against the system which we administer, has almost always been qualified, (with no little inconsistency,) by warm acknowledgments "of the very extraordinary merits of the Company's Servants as a body."

' Supposing that, as a body, we really possess the "extraordinary merits" imputed to us, it is difficult to understand how we could have fallen into the gross mistakes and countless absurdities of which we have been accused ; and it is certain, that if we have been really guilty of the errors and blunders in question, we are much more deserving of summary dismissal for incompetency, than of any credit for "extraordinary merits." I do not see how those who speak in the highest terms upon general conduct, and yet find fault with every thing that we have done, or are doing, are to escape from the dilemma ; unless it be supposed, that, in every department of the Government, there is some one mischievous fellow, (a very incarnation of the principles of misrule and confusion,) who employs himself by night in unravelling the web which his brother servants, (the men of "extraordinary merits,") have woven by day, and whose malevolent exertions have been able to counteract all the honest efforts which the Government and its officers have been making, since the days of Cornwallis, for the firm establishment of British power, and the general improvement of the country and its inhabitants. It is not in any one branch, nor in any one of the subordinate ramifications of all the branches of Government, that the errors are said to exist ; not only is the police inefficient, but the courts of civil justice require revision ; not only is the constitution of our native army defective, but the whole army is disposed in such a

manner, that we have no troops. "at all," to meet invasion in the only quarter from which it can be apprehended; and, besides all these, it seems to be implied, that roads and canals, the means of physical, and school, and church establishments, the mainsprings of moral improvements, have been sufficiently provided for, or attended to. If this be a faithful abridgment of the statement in the latter part of fifth article of the "Quarterly Review" for June last, and if the picture there drawn be a correct representation of the present state of British India, every member of the Government, from the Governor-General down to the youngest writer, deserves rather to be cashiered for gross incapacity, or wilful mal-administration, than to be spoken of with common tolerance, much less in the language of encomium.

I have really a desire to avoid petulance, more especially as my object is not to irritate, but to gain, and I am sure such are the feelings of my brother servants towards their countrymen at home; but those who have spent the best years of their lives, and worn down both mind and body, in zealous and unremitting exertions in their several spheres of action, and according to their respective talents, power, and opportunities, to sustain the honour of the British name, and to elevate and render happy their Indian fellow-subjects, cannot but feel some degree of excitation and annoyance, when one who has never shared the dangers and difficulties of the field, comes forward, with his pouncet-box in his hand, to hold forth, like a waiting gentlewoman, upon their oversights and errors. The vexation is still less tolerable, when these imperfections in system, or failures in operation, are paraded before the English public, as the discoveries of the home-bred writer, and their cure or obviation is spoken of as objects of future attention, in a tone which implies that nothing has of late years been done, or is now doing, with that purpose; whilst we "children of the sun" are conscious that these very subjects, in all their bearings, have been for years uppermost in our daily thoughts, and that all the talent and industry that can be selected from the body of "extraordinary merit," are at this moment, as they have long been, engaged in constant and unwearied exertions to devise and apply the means of remedy and improvement.

'In what quarter of the globe, "*ubi gentium*," is the system in operation of which even practical men, to say nothing of theorists and Benthamites, do not perceive the defects? On the other hand, who is ignorant that machinery, whether moral or physical, may look well upon paper, which, in practice, cannot move from its own weight or friction?

'We should think but lowly of the candour and good sense of the person who might vilipend poor Robinson Crusoe for not building a more ship-shape boat, or a more elegant wheelbarrow, wilfully shutting his eyes against the fact, that those tasks were achieved

with no better tools than a broad axe, a hammer, and a broken gimblet; but it seems the fashion to make no allowance for our unsupplied wants and insuperable obstacles. We toil and struggle on in our vocation; it is evident that something must be done, and we have little time and leisure to choose between alternatives; but, when we have turned our back upon what has gone by, (being always too incessantly occupied by the presence and prospects of emergencies, to speculate upon the past,) and are pressing forward to new objects, up starts a reviewer upon our track, like the unfortunate twin brother who was born half an hour too late, and never caught up during a life of seventy years, to spin theories upon institutions that have ceased to exist, or to deprecate a state of things which has no present being beyond his own pineal gland. But it is never suspected that an Indian Government may have but a choice of evils, still less that it is conscious of its own deficiencies. Strange as it may appear, it is, nevertheless, so. We know that our police is capable of being rendered more efficient, but does the author of article five know the character of the executive instruments, which our magistrates are unavoidably compelled to employ? Again, does that gentleman know how much our Native subjects may be happy to hazard, in the shape of security of property, for the sake of being exempted from espionage, the blessings of domiciliary visits, and other happy concomitants (particularly agreeable to our Oriental people) of what is called a vigorous and efficient police. The good people should, in common modesty, look to the state of their own calendars; exert themselves to bring to punishment some few of the patriotic gentlemen who disinterestedly assist the old Lady in Treadneedle-street in the manufacture of bank-notes, (instead of having the poor wretches who *pass them*;) and reckon up how many poachers are shot by game-keepers, and how many game-keepers are beaten to death by poachers, in the course of the year; before they sally forth, 'in a transport of universal philanthropy,' to assist their brethern in the East in the task of legislating for and protecting a people, a knowledge of whose habits, manners, and institutions, it acquires a lifetime of labour to acquire.

Railery apart, does the author of the article in question believe, that the Indian Administration, and its executive officers, in the department of police and criminal justice, are resting upon their oars, letting 'the world slide;' and so deeply wrapt in the slumber of the sluggard that they can only be awakened to a sense of their duties in that branch of Government by a few meagre hints with regard to their wants and imperfections carelessly thrown in (somewhat, as I cannot help thinking, in the tone of the true exquisite who inflicted his advice and observations upon Hotspur) at the close of an article upon the threadbare, worn-out subject of a Russian invasion of Hindoostan? Have we come to this? Have Cornwallis, Wellesley, Hastings, the Stracheys, Colebrokes, and a hundred others, toiled to

no better purpose, than that the result of their labours should be disposed of in one scanty page of 'The Quarterly Review,' by a writer too, who, as I will presently convince you, Sir, is wretchedly misinformed with regard to the very subject to which his observations are principally directed?

My letter would assume the appearance of a volume, and I should not be able to let you off under a dozen appendices and statements, figured and otherwise, if I thought it necessary to prove, in this place, that the improvement of the police, and of the administration of criminal justice, has been most rapid, and is at this moment progressive. Not only have great exertions been made; but, in spite of every obstacle, the insufficient number of the Civil Service,—the apathy of the great body of the people,—and the wretched moral character of the Native executive officers,—those exertions have, to a very gratifying extent, been crowned with success. But no one denies, that much, very much, remains to be done; and no one is looking behind him, or contemplating repose. Many able heads, honest hearts, and active energies, are straining every nerve in the race of improvement and amelioration. I am sure that the spur is not required, at any rate its wanton infliction upon willing minds is most earnestly to be deprecated: the civilians of Bengal demand nothing more than 'a fair field and no favour;' but they solemnly protest against being judged, at this time of day, upon the evidence contained in the 5th Report,—a hardship which they have too often to complain. It would be just as reasonable to hold the present British Ministry answerable for the Walcheren expedition, or to saddle upon my Lord Goderich the luminous financial arrangements of Mr. Nicholas Vansittart.

Yet the Indian Government is called up, year after year, to stand its trial upon charges of twenty years' standing, founded on a state of things which has long ceased to exist. Strachey and Tytler are referred to without moderation or mercy; Mr. James Stuart is quoted as evidence of the prevalence of decoity in Kishennuggur; (the essayist taking it for granted, that police and crime in that district have remained *in statu quo* since 1803;) and an editor, who professes to be peculiarly well qualified to discuss subjects connected with the Government of India, very gravely accuses us (publicans and sinners with a vengeance) of extorting from the wretched Ryots nine-tenths of the produce of the soil.* It may not be necessary to refute the last absurdity with the same solemnity with which it is advanced; but I fortunately possess the means of proving to the conviction of your contributor, if facts have any weight with him, that the efficiency of our police has increased within the last fifteen or eighteen years to an extent for which it might be difficult to find a parallel in the West.

* 'Oriental Herald.'

You are doubtless aware, Sir, that gang-robbery (decoity) has long been the peculiar scourge of the districts of Bengal Proper, to which, comparatively speaking, it is confined; and that the district of Kishennuggur, above mentioned, was formerly notorious as the principal *officina* of the perpetrators of those enormities. The subjoined statement will demonstrate that our officers of police have done something in that quarter towards the suppression of the formidable crime in question; and that Sir James Stuart's often quoted taunt is not applicable to the present day.*

Number of gang-robberies committed in the district of Kishennugur:

1803	162	1819	23
1804	130	1820	28
1805	162	1821	11
1806	273	1822	12
1807	154	1823	11
1808	329	1824	10

I annex proof that the improvement has been general; that the remedy has been applied to the constitution, not to the topical sore.

Number of gang-robberies committed in the Lower Provinces, including the jurisdiction of the Calcutta, Dacca, Moorshedabad, and Patna Courts of Circuit:

1823	203
1824	201
1825	154

or less than half the number perpetrated in the single district of Kishennuggur seventeen years before. If your contributor thinks it worth while to make inquiries in the proper quarter, he may convince himself that improvement in the department of police has not been confined to the suppression of decoity.

But a revision of the courts of justice is required. It is grievous to be so pestered by the truism of a poppinjay, who

‘Sports his small beer with the air of a chap,
Who believes it himself an exceeding strong tap,’

and who thinks it worth his while to inform the world, in the commencement of the second quarter of the 19th century, that the civilisation and prosperity of a country mainly depend on the rapidity of communication and facility of intercourse.* Really, Sir, this is an observation which I should have rather expected to fall from the pen of a writing-master, together with ‘evil communications cor-

* ‘In the department of the police, the Review is no less mortifying. For a very long period, our unhappy subjects have been the victims of atrocities, of which language could offer only a feeble portraiture; and these horrors have been most prevalent in districts which have been longest under British authority, and are nearest to the metropolis of the empire.’ But Mr. James Stuart was a pessimist of the first water.

rupt good manners,' and the like, than from that of a contributor to 'The Quarterly Review.' It may be interesting to him to know, however, that the Governor-General in Council has been so much impressed with the solidity as well as novelty of the aphorism, that his Lordship has ordered it to be printed in letters of gold, like the Duke of York's speech, and forwarded as a circular, 'for the information and guidance of the civil establishment throughout British India. To provide, at the same time, for the amusement of the military branch of the Service, the elaborate calculation attached as a note to page 136 of 'The Review,' has been transmitted, through the Adjutant-General, to every corps in the army, together with a copy of 'De Moivre.' You may depend upon it, Sir, that the 'want of means of returning to Europe to retire' is the only part of the 'frightful picture' to which your gallant fellow-countrymen will attach any credit. The rest is 'mere moonshine in water.'

You must let me have my laugh out, Sir; for the owl-like gravity of your contributor would be too much for the sleeping philosopher himself. But I must turn back; for it is as clear as assertion can make it, that our courts of justice require revision. Here, however, I must confess my inability to follow the Reviewer; for the laconic brevity of his charge completely baffles confutation. If he mean that judicial business has vastly increased whilst our establishments here remained comparatively stationary,—we plead guilty to the accusation. We might tell him that our common native land is in the same predicament; that the Judges, even in that country, cannot make forty-eight hours out of a day and night; and that the money standing in the name of the Accountant to the Court of Chancery, which in 1800 (seven years subsequent to the establishment of the existing judicial system in Bengal) was 17,563,000*l*, had risen in 1825 to 39,174,000*l*. In England they account for this and other facts of a similar bearing, by supposing that, with the wealth of a country, the extension of agriculture, and the increase of manufactures and commerce, points of collision are multiplied, and subjects of dispute arise. But, with reference to India, the existence of a parallel state of things is always charitably attributed to the spirit of litigation which our system has given birth to and fostered,—as if Hindoos were not litigious in the days of Orme,* and as if they alone were not subject to the universal law of cause and effect. But I promise your contributor, in the name of the Bengal Civil Service, that, whenever he will afford the local Govern-

* 'That pusillanimity and sensibility of spirit which renders the Gentoo incapable of supporting the contentions of danger, disposes them as much to prosecute litigious contests.' 'The only instance in which they seem to have a contempt of money, is their profusion of it in procuring redress and revenge of injuries at the bar of justice. Nothing can be more adapted to the feminine spirit of a Gentoo, than the animosities of a law-suit.'—Orme.

ment the means of doubling the judicial branch of their establishment, and provide the funds to pay them, the system may very safely be allowed to remain *in statu quo*. Or, (for there is an alternative,) let him enlighten us with some secret in moral alchemy, by which we may render a class of our Native subjects trust-worthy, and trusted by their brethren; and our courts of justice will require no revision. Let him do any thing, in short, but chatter about matters the difficulties of which have occupied and baffled his betters for the last five-and-thirty years.

The heaviest charge which your contributor has brought against the Indian Government is still behind, and it is well worth while, for the sake of their character for common judgment and sagacity, to examine it somewhat in detail. For, if it be well founded, it is most desirable that their gross incapacity for the performance of the high and responsible duties entrusted to them by their country, should be exposed to public scorn and indignation, and that no time should be lost in recalling them to stand their trial before a more formal tribunal. On the other hand, you will, I am sure, have the candour to admit, that the person who brings forward allegations of so grave a character against high functionaries in such a publication as 'The Quarterly Review,' is deeply committed for their truth, and must expect them to recoil upon his own head, in the shape of shame and contempt, if it can be clearly shown that he has not only spoken loosely and without book, but that the real facts of the case are diametrically opposed to his statement; and that he has fallen headlong into error of the least pardonable nature,—groundless calumny directed against the absent, either wilfully, or from sheer neglect to avail himself of the ample means of information upon such subjects within the reach of every man in England, who has a few shillings at command.

Let the charge be stated in your contributor's own language, and then mark, Sir, how plain a tale shall put him down; and judge whether the terms in which I have spoken of his strictures, be disproportioned to their offensiveness.

'Under the bare possibility, however, of an irruption by any Power, from the only remaining point where our Eastern possessions are open to such a scourge, and from which all successful irruptions have invariably proceeded, the mountainous regions in the north-west, it behoves us to have a jealous eye towards that quarter. It is a quarter, we must say, that has hitherto been singularly neglected; our great armies and splendid establishments are merely confined to the sea coasts, where they are the least necessary; the lower extremities of the great Indian body are well clothed, and fringed with costly garniture, while the head and trunk are left exposed and naked. On the south-eastern frontier, where no danger can now be apprehended, we keep up a large army to sicken and die in the swamps and jungles of the Ganges,

the Hoogly, and Burrampooter; while on the north-western frontier, where everything is to be apprehended, and where the mountain air breathes health and vigour into the human frame, we have no army at all. It must strike every body who travels northerly, as it did the intelligent Heber, how impossible it is to govern the remote provinces in that quarter from Calcutta, and how desirable to establish a separate presidency for Northern and Central India, either at Agra, Delhi, Meerut, or Singur, and to occupy military positions on the extreme northern frontier. The distance from Calcutta to this extreme northern frontier is 1200 or 1300 miles, and would require some months for the march of an army. What mischief, then, might occur from the sudden inroads of the neighbouring tribes, before a sufficient force could be marched thither from head-quarters for their expulsion.

'Now, I can scarcely conceive a graver charge against a Government than is contained in the above brief passage, (an admirable specimen of condensation in slander,) comprising, as it does, firstly, an allegation that the local rulers of India are so weak and inhuman as to keep a large army in unhealthy quarters to "sicken and die;" and, secondly, a broad assertion that they are so utterly unacquainted with the country which they administer, and its position and relation as to foreign Powers, as to leave the only quarter on which it is assailable unprotected by any "army at all." These are strong words; your contributor is nervous in assertion; let us see how the facts bear him out.

'Firstly, as to unhealthy quarters. It is well known to every man acquainted with this side of India, that the country above Bhaugulpore, from whence the central provinces commence, is as healthy as the Doab, or indeed any part of the western provinces; and that the districts between Shahabad and Benares furnish a very large proportion of our sepoys, to whom, therefore, the climate may be supposed congenial. Europeans, too, I think, retain their health and vigour as well at Dinapore, (Patna,) Ghazcepoore, and Benares, (the most considerable military stations in that part of the country,) as at Cawnpore or Meerut; many persons, indeed, suffering less from the effects of climate in the central provinces than farther to the north-west; where the hot winds, which blow in May and June, particularly at Agra, Delhi, and Cawnpore, are very distressing and debilitating. Even at Meerut, during that season, I have seen the thermometer, at 10 P. M., standing at 92°.

'I therefore suppose, as the words used by your contributor would seem to imply, that the "swamps and jungles of the Ganges, the Hoogley, and the Burrampooter," do not extend beyond the Rajmahal hills; and that, consequently, we must look between the northern limit of Bengal Proper, and the "sea coasts," for the large army which the Bengal Government, composed as a body of men of "very extraordinary merits," philanthropically keep up, "where

no danger can now be apprehended." "to sicken and die" from malaria and miasma.

' Now, there is a little red book, y'cleped a "Bengal Army List," published monthly, in Calcutta, "by authority," but "sold also by Messrs. Kingsbury, Parbury, and Allen, Leadenhall Street, and J. M. Richardson, Cornhill, London," (as its label runs,) to which it is very convenient to refer in such matter-of-fact matters as the relative disposition of the army, concerning which it purports to treat; and I, for one, have a habit of so doing, before I commit myself by talking, much more by writing, about such matters. Your contributor could scarcely have seen a later one than that of January last, now before me, in which I find somewhat more than nine pages devoted to the "distribution of the army." I also find that, including the six extra regiments unnumbered, but fully officered, the Bengal Native army consists of seventy-four regiments of infantry, and ten of light cavalry, besides two regiments of Europeans, artillery, engineers, &c. I am also instructed, that "the Presidency division" includes all the troops quartered below the Rajmahal hills above referred to.

' Inquiring further, I ascertain that, within the "Presidency division," including Penang, and the other settlements in that quarter, our new possessions in Arracan, and the frontier of Assam, are quartered neither more nor less than sixteen regiments of Native infantry; that two of them are severally stationed at Cuttack and Midnapore, both, as is generally agreed, very healthy posts; and one whole corps, and five companies of another, are at Penang. Of the remaining thirteen and a half regiments, six and a half are stationed at Barrackpore, and form, in fact, the garrison of Fort William, doing duty at Government House, the Mint, Treasury, and other guards, intrusted only to regulars, whilst the "large army," upon the south-east frontier, is thus composed:

' Head-quarters, Dacca	44th Regt. N. I.
Jumalpoore.....	13th ditto, ditto
Assam.....	54th ditto, ditto
Chittagong.....	52d ditto, ditto
Sandoway in Arracan.....	68th ditto, ditto

' The single regiment left unaccounted for is quartered at Berhampore (Moorshedabad.)

' Let your contributor, Sir, digest this statement, "with what appetite he may," always keeping in mind the disguised army in attendance upon the two kings of Brentford. On a frontier, extending from Cooch Behar to Cape Nevrais, more than ten degrees of latitude, the Bengal Government keep up a force of five regiments of regular infantry, and not one corps of cavalry; and this is the "large army" maintained to "sicken and die" amidst the swamps and jungles of the Ganges, the Hoogly, and Burrampooter! Barrackpore, the only military station upon the Hoogly, with the

exception of Fort William, being neither swampy nor covered with jungle, has been the chosen country residence of the Governors-General since the days of Lord Wellesley, who built the villa there, and laid out a beautiful park, and is, moreover, a favourite retreat of invalids and delicate ladies from the dust and glare of the "city of palaces."

'So much for the south-eastern frontier, and the disproportioned army maintained to defend it. Let us now turn, in the second place, to our boundary on the north-west, which is exposed, without protection, to the sudden inroads of the neighbouring tribes, who must be left in quiet possession of our provinces in that quarter, until a sufficient force can be "marched thither from head-quarters for their expulsion!"

'The note of admiration, Sir, is of your notable contributor's own affixion; but I will teach him that "*nil admirari*" is a wise maxim; for he will have, as Hajji Baba says, "to eat much dirt in this matter," to say nothing of his own words. It will, I am sure, delight a gentleman so deeply interested in the safety of the English empire in the East, to learn, that, comparatively speaking, almost every soldier, and every tumbril of "our great armies and splendid establishments," are so stationed as to defend our north-western frontier without a march of 1,200 or 1,300 miles; and (which will still further surprise him) that there is no tribe in that quarter from whom any sudden inroad can reasonably be expected.

'That old fox, Runjeet Singh, will never push his Seik horse upon British bayonets. He will certainly *endeavour*, at least, to instil the same prudent policy into the mind of his successor. When I was at Delhi, some years ago, I saw a Native newspaper, written at the Seik court, and giving an account of a review which had lately taken place in the presence of Runjeet Singh, and some French or Russian officers in his service; for the Persian orthography of European proper names renders it impossible to distinguish Gaul from Muscovite. The cavalry appeared to have executed their manoeuvres with some *eclat*; for Runjeet inquired, from one of his European officers, how many of his troopers could cope successfully with a regiment of British infantry. "Not an hundred thousand, please your Majesty," was the uncourtly reply of the blunt soldier. With respect to all the other "tribes," there is much more danger that our overgrown empire should swallow them up, than that they should madly run their heads into the lion's mouth by any "sudden inroad." The former tributaries of the Mahrattas and Amee Khan, are about as formidable to British India, as the gipsy "tribes" to the safety of the Tower of London.

'But, if they *were to come*, your contributor, Sir, says that there is no army to meet and repulse them. Aye, indeed! look to your laurels, my Lord Combermere; for the axe of a reviewer is at their

roots. What has become of the gallant army, nearly 30,000 strong, which you gathered round Bhurtpore; did they start into existence like the armed men of Cadmus, and has the earth re-swallowed her growth? But why should I trouble your Lordship, when the little red "Army List" is so faithful and precise? What says "my little counsellor?"

"*Troops in the Cawnpore Division, January, 1827.*—1 regiment King's infantry; 1 ditto ditto dragoons; 2 ditto Native light cavalry; Native infantry, 2d, 3d, 8th, 9th, 14th, 26th, 29th, 32d, 34th, 36th, 42d, 51st, 57th, 2d extra, 3d ditto:—total fifteen regiments.

"*Meeruth Division.*—1 regiment King's infantry; 1 ditto ditto dragoons; 2 ditto ditto Company's Europeans; 5 ditto Native light cavalry; Native infantry, 1st, 4th, 5th, 6th, 11th, 12th, 15th, 17th, 18th, 21st, 23d, 35th, 37th, 41st, 53d, 55th, 58th, 60th, 63d, 64th:—total twenty regiments.

"*Rajpootana Field Force.*—1 regiment light cavalry; 19th, 33d, and 55th regiments Native infantry.

"*Meywaur Head Quarters Neemuch.*—1 regiment light cavalry; 10th, 31st, and 48th regiments Native infantry.

"*Saugor Division.*—24th, 38th, 39th, 43d, 45th, and 5th extra regiments Native infantry. Of the remainder, seven regiments of Native infantry were quartered in the Benares division, together with one corps of light cavalry and one regiment of King's infantry. Within the Patna division, only four regiments of Native infantry were posted."

'Now, Sir, let your ingenious contributor procure a map of Hindoostan, and endeavour to find out upon its ample bosom, the names Cawnpore, Meeruth, Rajpootana, Neemuch, and Saugor, the which he denominates "Singur." Let him place a red wafer on each of those words, and then rejoice himself in the assurance that within the tracts of country, of which those places are, severally, the head quarters, were stationed, (at the moment of his penning his remarks,) two regiments of King's infantry, two regiments of the Company's Europeans, two regiments of King's dragoons, nine regiments of Native light cavalry, and forty-seven corps of Native infantry, besides the whole of the horse, and a great proportion of the foot artillery, (who have a large depôt at Agra,) Colonel Skinner's celebrated irregular horse, (two regiments,) Gardner's, and other corps of the same description. It will also comfort him to know that the Bombay army has a strong force quartered at Maow. The aggregate number of these details certainly exceeds 60,000 men; but the author of article five may set his mind at rest with the assurance, that the appearance of a squadron of his Majesty's 16th lancers, with one corps of Skinner's horse, and two twelve-pounders of the horse artillery, upon one of the fine, dusty

plains of the north-western frontier, would produce an effect very little short of magical dispersion upon any of the "neighbouring tribes," that might venture, under some lamentable infatuation, upon a "sudden inroad" into our territories. He may believe me, that it would be by no means necessary to march a force from "head quarters for their expulsion." The poor man, to be consistent, must suppose that the whole force employed against Bhurt-pore was marched 1,200 or 1,300 miles from Calcutta! They must have reached their destination terribly foot-sore.

'One word more, Sir, and I have done. I left England during the literary reign of Mr. Gifford, and I am not certain that I am correctly informed with regard even to your name. But I have an abstract, though, at the same time, an unfeigned, respect for the editor of such a publication as "The Quarterly Review,"—and honour to the land I love so dearly,—and, paradoxical as it may sound, I esteem it the more, perhaps, because its politics are not mine. Indian though I be, a tropical sun has not yet bleached all my English feelings out of me, and I regard honest, manly discussion, and the unshackled expression of opinion, as the very breath of my nostrils. I should, therefore, be a traitor to my own most deep-rooted opinions, if I did not desire that the attention of the public in England should be directed far more frequently than unhappily it is to the state of British India, to the conduct of their sons and brothers who have been delegated to govern this noble country, and to the effect of their measures and policy upon the happiness of the Natives, our common fellow-subjects. These are the sentiments of every educated Englishman in India; we desire the notice and supervision of our wise and intelligent countrymen: we will bow to their censures, and endeavour to render ourselves worthy of their commendations. But we will not tamely submit to be made the butt for the headless arrows of every flippant and ignorant authorling who scribbles for a periodical, even though the editor of "The Quarterly Review" should, through oversight, permit such a person to eke out his contribution about Russians and Turcomans, by devoting, in a careless picktooth sort of manner, two or three tail paragraphs to the criticism of every branch of the civil, military, and ecclesiastical policy of the British empire in the East. In the words of my Lord Liverpool's pencil note, "It is too bad." We have been told by Mr. Buckingham that our Judges do not understand the languages in which they administer the law, and a hundred other statements, as false and foolish, have been sounded and reiterated upon the ears of the English public; and we have met the slanders with contemptuous silence. But there is a point beyond which endurance is weak and culpable self-abandonment. What is frequently, loudly, and uncontradictedly repeated, will, by the great mass of readers, be believed without examination or inquiry. Your contributor has just turned the screw of misre-

presentation beyond what moral nerves and sinews can quietly submit to, and the consequences have fallen on his head. Let him remain silent for the future, or I pledge myself to hang him where the finger of scorn shall point at him, till he be convinced that notoriety and reputation are not always convertible terms.

‘Once again, Sir, let me assure you that I only blame you for suffering such “small game” to flutter through the pages of the publication that you sway. To the public and literary characters of England, we look up as children to an elder brother. They are our loadstars, the branches of the mighty tree from which we are scions, and we give them honour accordingly. But, if we be babes in knowledge and the science of Government, let us be fed with pure milk, not with the frothy, vapid, and offensive wringings of a mind, which, though we tax our humility to the uttermost, we cannot admit to be on a par with the lowest of our own leaders.

‘We trust we have within our realm,
Five hundred good as he.”

‘Let it be remembered that the lance, formerly borne by a gallant soldier, was only good for laughter in the grasp of Goose Gibbie; and that even the editorial “we” only adds to the ridicule that attaches itself to the essay of a writer who ventures into waters which the line of his understanding is utterly unable to fathom; whose wisdom consists in vague assertions, and truisms, whose date is beyond the memory of man; and who is coxcomb enough to suppose that the local Governors of British India are so low in the scale of intellect and knowledge, as to be taught the art of ruling by one who never governed any living creature but a housemaid and a foot-boy, or,—more questionably,—his wife. I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient servant,

‘A *BENGAL CIVILIAN*.’

REMARKS OF THE INDIAN EDITOR.

‘We must protest against the assumption that every writer who complains of the defects of the system of Indian administration is attacking those entrusted with the execution of it; we maintain that there is not the slightest inconsistency in ascribing to the civil service as a body, “extraordinary merit,” and still denouncing the system which they are entrusted to administer as the very worst which exists in any dependency of Great Britain; and in support of this opinion we need only advert to two obstacles which are sufficient in themselves to defeat the best intentions and the best efforts of that body, viz. want of power and want of means. A *Bengal Civilian*, though he construes “*The Quarterly’s*” attack upon the system into an attack, not upon the whole body of the civil service, but upon the *Bengal* branch of it, of which he is a member, seems himself to admit, in some passages, that there are obstacles to improvement which

the utmost zeal and skill cannot overcome; for instance, when he refers for illustration to the want of candour which would be exhibited in abusing poor Robinson Crusoe for not having built a better boat or wheel-barrow, without taking into account the badness of the tools with which he had to work, and, he might have added, without also allowing for the limited number of his assistants in the task. We do not find that the reviewer is guilty of this want of candour attributed to him. It is not so much a complaint against the workmen that he intends, as a complaint that they are not supplied with proper materials. Thus, for example, when he talks of making good roads, and opening canals, as of great importance, though we believe him most felicitously ignorant of all that has been done in that way, it is equally clear, that under the existing system, the Company's servants cannot be held accountable for not having done more, so long as the cry from home is still for tribute, and they have only the power to recommend the application, and not to apply the revenue to these great public purposes. It is no secret that every diversion of the public revenue from the channel of remittance, is a source of complaint and of reproof from home. It is mentioned in a note in the work "*Colonial Policy*," &c. that the re-opening of one of Shah Jehan's canals of irrigation, drawn from the Jumna, is one of the most considerable things the British Government has done; it cost 24,000*l.*, and this in a country from which the Company are stated to draw a revenue exceeding twenty millions! Under such a system, when a public writer complains of the administration of the country as defective—that some of the most essential features of a good Government are wanting here, it is clear that he cannot fairly be considered as attacking the body of men who are entrusted to apply, and not to change it.

The Reviewer affirms, that we require a revision of the Courts of Justice, a more efficient police, and an increase of the means of instruction to the people. Does "*A Bengal Civilian*" refute or deny these assertions? No such thing; but, interpreting them into an attack upon the Bengal Civil Service, he turns round and asks, whether the Reviewer thinks that the Indian administration and its executive officers have been resting on their oars, or doffing the world aside, regardless of all improvement; and whether they can be awakened to a sense of their duty by a few meagre hints, &c., carelessly thrown in at the close of an article on Russian Missions. We agree with a Bengal Civilian in condemning the manner in which the Reviewer has introduced and treated subjects of such importance. It would be discreditable even in a daily newspaper, got up with all the haste which is inevitable in such a publication, and sent to press with all its imperfections on its head: to a work like "*The Quarterly*," it is utterly disgraceful; for, although the writer disclaims the intention of doing more than throwing out a few loose hints, the subjects to which these hints apply ought not to be treated in such a loose manner. While we concede to "*A Bengal Civilian*," then, that the Re-

viewer merits his censure, we do not think he has at all shown that the writer's complaints against the system of our Indian Government are unfounded. He has stated, indeed, that there has been an improvement, in certain districts, in the administration of criminal justice; and he has demonstrated, that there has been an improvement in the police in the lower provinces of Bengal, as exemplified in the diminution of gang-robbery. We know, too, that some good roads have been made, and that others are in progress; but we scarcely think that rapidity of intercourse, and facility of communication, can be said to have arrived at such perfection in this country, as that the very idea of suggesting their importance should be deemed sufficient to discompose the gravity of the reader. We have not yet, that we know of, such a thing in the country as a mounted dawk, and we believe that the rapidity of communication amounts to about 80 * miles per day. When we consider, then, how long we have possessed the country, and the amount of tribute which the Company have drawn from it, it is not to be wondered at that a public writer in England should really consider, that the importance of rapidity and facility of communication had not been duly estimated by the sovereigns of India.

“A Bengal Civilian” treats with great contempt the assertion that the Courts of Justice require revision. It is certainly vague and unsatisfactory language, and might probably be applied to all Courts of Justice in the world, certainly to all we ever heard or read of; but the defect in the judicial administration of India, is not merely that judicial business has increased while that system has remained stationary,—it is that that system never was, and it never will be, adequate to administer justice to the people of India. “A Bengal Civilian” has endeavoured to show, that there has been great improvement: he will not, therefore, be judged by the evidence of the fifth report. We refer him, then, to the papers of Sir Hyde East, recently published, in which some of the most material defects of our judicial system are enumerated, and also to Sir John Malcolm's Political History of India. This last author is evidently disposed to view the institutions which have been bred and fostered by the British power with a favourable eye; but he gives an unfavourable picture of our judicial system, with all the alterations and improvements which have been made and introduced. He considers the system of police defective also; but the most effectual means of improving both are not likely to find favour in his eyes, and are wholly passed over by him. We should like to know what changes of the existing system can ever enable some few hundred of the Company's servants, however great their zeal and talents, assisted by Native officers only, (whose “insolence and venality” are of themselves in most instances sufficient to deter the approach of a suitor to their courts,) to administer justice effectually to eighty or a hundred millions of

* The shipping report from Kedgerie comes in at this fine season after noon!

people? The idea is preposterous. The measures to which we have alluded must be the basis of any substantial improvement, either in the system of administering justice, or in that of our police—they are Colonisation and the Freedom of the Press. Of the manner in which they would operate on both systems, it cannot be necessary to speak: it is obvious. What, for example, constitutes at this moment the efficiency of the police of England? Is it the ability and persevering application of our Sir Richard Birnies and Connatts, or the thief-catching talents of our Lavenders? No; it is our moral police, the freedom of the press, and the rapidity of communication, which insure the security of life, and liberty, and property in England. In that part of the concluding portion of the letter of "A Bengal Civilian," which adverts to the distribution of our army, he has most triumphantly refuted the assertions of the Reviewer. As to what is urged by the Reviewer, it is a mere repetition, in briefer form, of what has been recently stated in "Blackwood," and has been advanced by fifty writers. The condition of the Native officers in the army is the source of complaint. It is a subject, indeed, which deserves the most serious consideration; but, while the writer condemns the injustice of such a system, he takes no trouble to investigate the difficulties that might impede a change for the better: nor, essential as it is on his own showing, does he in direct terms propose it, but contents himself with a puerile remark, that, if the evil cannot be mended, we must endeavour to make it as endurable as we can by other indulgences, as we give children sweetmeats or sugar to get them to swallow a bitter pill, or a nauseous lotion. Such is the manner in which the affairs of India are discussed by a Quarterly Reviewer! As for the assertion, that the conduct of our Native soldiers in the Burmah war, or at Bhurtpore, affords any cause to doubt their allegiance, such an assertion merits no more than an indignant denial. If a man were to affirm, that the figure of Britannia on the top of Government-house were an elephant, with a howdah upon it, we should hardly be expected to take the trouble of explaining to him the difference in form between a woman and an elephant, in order to convince him of his folly. We can no more be expected to enumerate instances of the discipline and devoted courage of the Sepahis, in order to refute a slander unsupported by any attempt at proof, or by any appeal to facts.

'We have no more to say at present to "A Bengal Civilian," except that, while speaking for himself, and the body of which he is a member, he desires that the attention of the public of England should be more frequently directed "than it unhappily is," to the state of British India, we think it would be more consistent at least to speak a little less contemptuously than he does of the only work which is chiefly, almost exclusively, devoted to the promotion of that object, we mean "The Oriental Herald." If he should have adopted the erroneous notion, that the Editor is hostile to the service to which he belongs, let him refer to the June number of his work, and we think he will retract that opinion.'—*Bengal Hurkaru.*

SPIRITUALITIES.

IN solemn commune of the lone still night,
 When, shrined in heaven, the stars shone bright and clear,
 Shedding on earth dim shadowings of that light
 Whose heavenly radiance gleams o'er glory's sphere,
 I oft have mused on that recoiling fear,
 That shuddering awe which bows the human mind,
 When beckoning shadows in the gloom appear,
 Or sheeted phantoms wail in midnight wind,—
 Dread visitants uncalled unto their kind.

And it hath seem'd an awful thing and strange,
 That shrieking spirits and unblest should roam
 Unarm'd o'er earth, for ever bringing change,
 Sorrow, and death—prophetic shades of doom ;
 Mystery of mysteries ! Not e'en the tomb
 Can yield repose to wandering souls unblest ;
 But from sepulchral darkness they must come,
 From their lone slumbers and their chill unrest,
 And with mute horror freeze the well-spring of the breast.

Here man and prophets, skill'd in subtle lore,
 With scornful unbelief have vainly striven ;
 Shadows uncouth have gloom'd on dusky shore,
 And dark bleak heath in the dim summer even,
 And forms have glimmer'd o'er the twilight heaven,
 E'en to the eyes of wisdom, unlike earth's ;
 And shrieks, upon the howling tempest driven,
 Blanch'd rosy cheeks round merry crackling hearths,
 And frantic mothers mourn'd o'er diabolic births.

The lamp's red light hath suddenly turn'd dim ;
 Strange voices moan'd along the fair blue sky,
 From bridal-halls hath wail'd the funeral hymn,
 And fear hath clouded the inquiring eye,
 And shaken the proud heart in mastery,
 When faltering voices awful knowledge sought,
 And pale lips quiver'd, breathless for reply
 To daring question of mysterious nought,
 Whose hollow accents fell, annihilating thought.

Mail'd knights, their helms and gorgets streaming blood,
 And their rent banners spotted with red gore,
 Have blown their war-horns in the midnight wood
 Louder than rocking thunder's echo'd roar ;
 And coal-black steeds, mid lightning flashes, o'er
 The precipice have leapt, and clatter'd on
 Through craggy dells, by ocean's pebbly shore,
 While the dead horsemen from their eyes of stone
 Flash'd forth a demon light and raised a hollow moan.

Mid the deep forest of the Odenwold
Or haunted Hartz, the traveller hath pass'd
Swift, while his heart in terror's grasp grew cold,
As fiends swept by in every mountain blast,
Mutter'd his name, and bade the victim haste
Where the dread vampire feasted on his child,
Or ravening lust possess'd his wife at last ;
Then on the wretch the prophet fiend hath smiled,
And vanish'd in wreathed flame amid the darkening wild !

The murderer hath started from his feast,
When the loud summons shook his castle gate,
And on his tongue died merry tale and jest
At the dread warning of triumphant fate ;
Through moss-grown towers and vast halls desolate
Till morn hath echoed the slow, armed tread ;
And, when the ancient chieftain whilom sate,
Uncarthy eyes have gleam'd, as if the dead -
Were throned in judgment o'er dark deeds of years long fled.

Such things have been, if there be truth in oath,
And mighty men been overcome with dread,
And holy priests of bell and cross, though loath
To quail before the inessential dead,—
The wisest, bravest, purest, best, have fled
From midnight wailings and mysterious forms,
Nor dared to watch the unsounding feathery tread
Of those who vanish'd in dark gathering storms—
Spirits, that howl'd away to their cold bed of worms.

The world is full of fear—the fear of things
All hearts can feel, but not an eye can see ;
And this deep terror o'er the spirit flings
Madness that fashions what can never be ;
There's not a cloud, a shadow, brook, or tree,
That fear clothes not with horror, when the night
Stands in the portal of eternity,
And bids the demons speed upon their flight
To tempt the sons of men—but part ere morning light.

Barons have tumbled like their vassals, when
Death shook his cearments off, and came among
The living, like a victor ;—priests have then
Clung to their shrines, e'en as the voiceless tongue
Grew to the quivering palate ;—vaults have rung
With vigil prayers and groans of agony,
And stripes of penance—and death dirges sung,
Till the scared worshippers arose to flee,
And hurried, baffled in their power, in dark crowds frantically.

Amid the sacred silence of her cell
 The vestal hath forgot to tell her beads,
 And listen'd to the agonising yell
 That fearfully reveal'd most fearful deeds ;
 Vain, then, were crucifix, and prayers, and creeds ;
 Vain the dim vigil and the patient fast ;
 Like the low moaning of sepulchral creeds,
 Sighs of a suffering spirit by her pass'd,
 And shrieks thro' cloisters rang, the wildest and the last !

This awful fear and scorching quest pervade
 All climes—all ages ; since the world was young,
 And Heaven's dread curse on all such knowledge laid,
 Since all earth's woes from one transgression sprung,
 The soul of man hath had no rest ; among
 Cyarean rocks Apollo's temple stood,
 Where, like Heaven's voice, prophetic echoes rung ;
 Rome had her countless fanes—her types of blood—
 And every nation seeks what none yet understood.

These things, so awful in their mystery, fill
 The panting heart with horror past all speech,
 And shoot through every vein a quivering thrill,
 An awe that petrifies—beyond the reach
 Of human healing ; wisdom cannot teach
 Knowledge, nor lessen the wild fears that bear
 The spirit into madness ; preach, oh, preach
 In learned ignorance, to mocking air,
 Ye ministers of heaven ! ye heralds of despair !

Tell us what 'tis we dread—and what we are !
 Reveal your mission ! rend away the veil !
 Doubt o'er us hangs, like a cold distant star,
 That shows but darkness ; ah ! what can avail
 The oft-told errand—the dark dreamy tale
 Of life and death—of heaven, and earth, and hell ?
 Whence comes this wavering ? whence this midnight wail ?
 Where do the spirits of the buried dwell ?
 Boast ye of Heaven's high power—yet know not—cannot tell ?

Such things are ; but why, earth cannot reveal !
 The air we breathe may be but spirits' breath—
 Spirits that wander, for our woe or weal,
 Through the dark vale of sorrow and of death,
 Or o'er the piny hill and blasted heath,
 For ever near—for ever whispering hope
 Or fear within us—to our bliss or scathe ;
 None mortal may with them in conflict cope—
 Their subtle nature doth elude our utmost scope !

Strange is the tissue of our thought ! the mind
As a dim heaven of visions and of dreams,
Where glories, passing, leave their hues behind,
Duskily bright ! The blending of the beams
Of changeful thoughts, where each far onward streams,
Tinting the other with Elysian light,
Like twilight shed from hill-tops on blue streams,
Throws o'er our life a vesture darkly bright,
An interwoven robe of mingled day and night.

Perchance we live and move but in a dream,
For waking thoughts are oft like visions shown ;
It nought avails that we should be or seem,
For sleep and waking have the self-same tone.
We dream of things oft dreamt—of time long gone,
E'en as remembrance brings back real things ;
And the soft rays of former thoughts are strewn
Through slumber, on the spirit's shadowy wings,
E'en as the eye beheld those strange imaginings !

So fine and subtle is the frame of spirits
That they pervade the universe, and fling
Glory o'er all that mortal life inherits,
Like a soft-eyed and ever-blooming spring.
Thoughts slumber on each folded eagle-wing,
Ready to shed their radiance when the soul
Unfurls its pinions, while the bright birds sing,
And heaven's own rays from eyes of beauty roll,
Like diamond stars that flash around the snowy pole.

The lone heart lingers by the fount, and yearns
To drink the bann'd cup of that awful lore,
Which dwells amid the ashes of death's urns,
And is pour'd forth on that untravell'd shore,
Whence parted spirits can return no more.
But, oh ! the quest is vain ; the burning thirst
Of knowledge never can be quench'd before
The bonds that chain'd the struggling bosom burst,
And the free soul departs—to realise the worst !

Like clouds o'er heaven, high thoughts float on the brain,
And feelings on the heart, like sunlight haze
O'er the blue mountain and the bloomy plain ;
Mingled, they shed a momentary blaze,
Then part, and gleam in thousand different ways ;
But all grow dimmer in their distant flight,
And fade away ; nor can their faintless rays
Pierce the dense gloom of that long future night,
O'er whose Avernian shades dawns no celestial light.

But well the searching mind these shapes may deem,
 These sheeted apparitions, that appal
 The heart—no phantoms of creative dream,
 But sainted spirits, mourning nature's fall,
 The griefs, and stern adversities, and all
 The sad afflictions of our human state ;
 Or, dread avengers, at the eternal call
 Of blood, they come, the messengers of fate,
 And do such deeds unseen as words may not relate.

Or messages of mercy may invite
 Blest ones to wander mid their own loved kin,
 That they may minister to their delight,
 And shield their erring hearts from mortal sin ;
 So by this gentle commune, they may win
 Transgressors from the path that leads to woe,
 And guide them where the holy enter in,
 The heaven of heavens—the home that cannot know
 Aught of that harrowing grief which visits all below.

Oh, gentler thought and kindlier feelings wake,
 And man may learn to gaze upon the grave
 With strong love, void of terror, and to take
 Delight in converse there ; no more a slave
 To his own fears and the wild winds that rave.
 But at His bidding, who fills all the air
 With storms or sunshine—who rules wind and wave,
 If hidden guilt nurse not thy heart's despair,
 Go to the midnight tomb, and sit in silence there !

And hold communion with loved ones who sleep,
 Yet not unconscious of thy love and woe,
 In death's own arms, yet in their bosoms keep
 That high affection thou to them didst show ;
 For thee their spirits still with first love glow,
 For thee they whisper in the evening wind
 Soft soothing words, that like still waters flow :
 ' Though dead, our love yet lingers all behind—
 For thee we dwell in heaven, be thou to heaven resign'd !'

Oh, 'tis a precious joy and bliss to me
 To know—to feel that thou art ever near,
 Thou best and dearest ! fondly unto thee
 I pour forth all my woes—for thou wilt hear—
 Wilt hear and love the fonder, that the tear,
 Unfrequent shed, was shed for thee alone !
 Where'er I roam, though thou dost not appear,
 Yet thou art with me, dear departed one !
 Once angel of the world—now cherub of God's throne !

- I cannot fear the visitants of heaven,
 The haggard spectres of the midnight'hour ;
 I love the starry brow of silent even—
 I love the decoy, distant moonlight bower ;
 No evil o'er the trusting heart hath power,
 But lovely messengers from heaven attend,
 And, like the rainbow bosom'd on the shower,
 • Impart a rapture whensoever they bend
 Their flight, to cheer the heart of him who hath no friend.
- No friend among the world's deceptive throng,
 Who smile and wound—who promise and forsake ;
 Whose faith is folly, and whose friendship wrong,
 Who talk and counsel while the heart doth break !
 Oh, deeper than the stinging of the snake
 They wound, who bind their venom round the brain,
 And then deride the madden'd wretch they make,
 And vaunt their wisdom on his writhing pain !
 Worse than the worst of fiends ! Oh, let the arch-fiend reign !
- Far better league thy faith with him of hell
 Than trust the pledge or oath of human thing ;
 There is more music in a funeral knell
 Than human voices, howsoever they sing ;
 There is more beauty in a raven's wing
 Than in the heart that feeds alone on lies ;
 Fire, flood, plague, earthquake, each and all can bring
 More joy than man who makes the heart his prize,
 And on the deepest woes feasts his hell-flashing eyes.
- But let the world pass by ! I know it well ;
 It much hath wrong'd me ; but I will not bow
 To aught that wears the form of earth or hell :
 I never have done, and I will not now !
 My heart long since breathed forth its changeless vow,
 Never to be of things I dwell among,
 Never to stoop or stain my spotless brow ;
 Never to do, however I suffer wrong,
 And never blot one's fame with an accursed tongue.
- So, guiding mid the erring ways of men
 My mind aright, I feel no terrors weigh
 Upon my bosom ; or by day, or when
 Night brings the time to meditate and pray.
 Without reproach, thus pass my hours away,
 And nought I seek for all that men aver ;
 They are to me mere things of breathing clay,
 That by their follies me from sin deter,
 And bid me oft, full fain, to life's young hours recur.

ON THE CULTIVATION OF COFFEE AT BANGALORE.

[From an Indian Correspondent.]

THE cultivation of coffee at this place has never been carried to any extent. No individual paid attention to it until Major G. Waugh, an officer of the coast army, planted it in his garden, in the Native cavalry lines here, in 1814 and 1815, while he held the situation of military paymaster in Mysore, an office which he had filled for many years with great credit to himself and benefit to the public. The shrubs planted by him are now of considerable size, and bear luxuriantly; great care was taken of them when young, regularly watering and manuring them. The situation of the plants in this garden is also very good, being near to a good tank, and sheltered by large trees of other descriptions.

A few coffee plants are to be found in other gardens in the Cantonment; but, for want of care and attention, they yield little. There are also a few very large trees in the fort, in a garden adjoining the old palace, occupied by the general officers commanding the Mysore division of the army. These have, in some seasons, yielded very abundant crops, and have attained a greater size than any coffee plants to be found here, being about twenty feet high and full of branches. I understand they were planted in 1806 and 1807, by a Dr. Hayene, at that time botanist and naturalist in this establishment. They were originally raised here from the seed brought by Dr. Hayene, he having been the first person who introduced coffee into this place. He had also as fine plants in the Laul-Baug garden, but these, having been neglected until lately, have come to no perfection. There are some trifling plantations of coffee in villages adjacent to this; but the Natives pay little attention to it, in consequence of the length of time that elapses, ere it begins to repay the cultivator, and the trouble attending it when young.

From different Native gardeners, and others conversant with the subject, I have collected the following information: The plant is propagated by seeds which should be sown soon after they are gathered from the tree; for, if kept any considerable time out of the ground after being gathered, they will become too dry to vegetate. A dark rich soil, rather dry, with a slight admixture of sand, or the rich red earth common in Mysore, is the fittest for the cultivation of coffee: on wet cold ground, or on clayey soils, the plants pine away, or vegetate slowly, and yield fruit of an inferior quality.

A sheltered situation is found best for raising the plants from the seed. The ground ought to be well manured and turned up from twelve to fourteen inches deep, the mould broke and pulverised; and, previously to the seed being planted, it ought to be formed into beds of four feet square. The berries intended for seed must be

allowed to become as fully ripe on the tree as when they are gathered for use, then to be rubbed out of the husks, and mixed up with a small quantity of wood ashes; and, after being exposed for a few hours in the sun, they are put into the ground, about two inches deep, and six inches asunder. It has been found better to plant the bean whole than to separate it, the seed vegetating better, and producing much stronger and healthier plants.

The beds on which the seed is planted must be regularly watered every twelve hours, if practicable; not deluged, but gently watered, so as always to keep them moist. The plants will appear in forty or forty-five days, if the watering has been regularly attended to; but if this is neglected, from three to four months often elapse ere the plant appears, and then it is not a strong shoot. On the plant appearing, attention must be paid to keep the beds free from weeds of every description; these will sometimes spring up two plants together, one of which should be destroyed. Unremitting care is required during the two first months to rear the plants with attention, sheltering them from heavy falls of rain or scorching heats, both of which are alike injurious.

When about two months or ten weeks old, they will be from six to nine inches high, and are then transplanted to a second nursery, which must have been previously well turned up and richly manured. The nurseries ought to be in sheltered situations, if amongst peach trees, or others not of so large a size as to preclude the air. The plants will come on quickly in the second nursery; they ought to be set from nine to twelve inches asunder, and continue here from twelve to eighteen months, attention being paid to water them daily, and every month slightly turning up the ground, adding some good manure, and keeping down all weeds. The plants are removed from this to the ground intended for the coffee plantation, which should be prepared in a similar manner to the nurseries; they are here planted at a distance of from six to nine feet, according to the soils, holes being dug about two and a half feet deep, and filled up, on putting in the plant, with good earth and dung. After this the plant becomes very hardy, and requires but little attention, except in dry seasons, when it must be watered. When the plant is removed, great care must be taken not to injure the roots, nor should they be kept any time out of the ground; for, if the fibres be suffered to dry, they are apt to mould and perish soon after. At three years of age the plant begins to bear fruit, and at six years is in full bearing, and will continue in vigour from twelve to fifteen years, after which it fails; trees of five or six years' standing will yield yearly from four to six pounds, some of these large trees in the Fort, formerly mentioned, bear from ten to twelve pounds. The coffee plant is an evergreen, and yields a crop yearly; it has a beautiful appearance at every season of the year, particularly when in blossom; the flower being a pure delicate white from the time of

budding, and flowering until the fruit is gathered, includes a period of six months, and in wet seasons rather more. The fruit, when ripening, changes colour from green to a pale pink, and gradually becomes brighter as it ripens; when fully ripe, the husks are of a bright red like a cherry, and perfectly dry on the stalks; the mode of separating the fruit from the husks is performed by beating them slightly in a wooden mortar; they very readily separate, if not gathered before being fully ripe. An acre of ground planted with good coffee trees, at the distance of nine feet, will contain 1,613 plants; and if these are properly attended to, carefully watered and manured, they will, after the third year, yield an average of four pounds each, or nearly 6,500 pounds from the acre, and continue to yield, at this rate, from ten to fifteen years. There seems to be but one species of coffee known here, although the appearance of it differs considerably, owing to the soil and mode of cultivation; some of it is a pale yellow, and another kind a dark yellow nearly green.

The price of coffee varies much in Mysore:—at times it as low as four rupees, at others as high as ten rupees a maund of twenty-five pounds.

W. T. L.

*
 REPLY TO AN ARTICLE INSERTED IN THE 'ASIATIC JOURNAL'
 OF LONDON, AND COPIED INTO THE 'REVUE
 BRITANNIQUE' OF PARIS. *

An article relative to the Asiatic Society, taken from a London journal, has been reprinted, with the exception of some prudent suppressions, in the 'Revue Britannique.' No answer was made to it, while its only guarantee was the name of the printer of the journal, which has no readers in Great Britain; but people were surprised at seeing it reprinted in a publication which generally has the merit of extracting the best articles from the English papers. Such a task does not seem to be above human capability, but it may happen that editors may misplace their confidence, or make an unlucky selection. The editors in question, in fact, say that they do not fully approve of all the observations which their article contains; but this is not sufficient—they ought to have known that the article was false in every particular. They add, that their journal is essentially eclectic, but eclectism does not consist in collecting stupidity. It is certainly difficult to be possessed of wisdom every day, and it is not an easy task to have good sense once a month, even though one is contented with what is bought ready-made. The editors in question might, however, have obtained more exact information relative to the Asiatic Society than any body else; and even without it, the least degree of penetration or attention would have been sufficient to discover, in the author of the pretended English article, a correspondent of the Continent, and to see that his article

* From a French Brochure.

was dictated by some paltry, interested feeling, wounded self-love, mistaken vanity, or discontented mediocrity; which passions are to be found in every country, but to which little attention is paid when they are openly manifested. Men of sense know what value is to be attached to this convenient sort of correspondence, in which things are laid to the account of an unknown foreigner, which no one would dare either to say or to print in his own country; and eulogiums are bestowed that would not be obtained at such a cheap rate from those capable of judging; and which could not be given openly without exposing one's-self to be hooted. The reflections which such an article has suggested, are given here with more confidence, because, in order to have the right to complain of it, it is necessary properly to apply it. In fact, if the supposition which has given rise to them is correct, no body can find them too severe; and if by possibility they were unfounded, as they would have no application, they could not wound any body.

The author of the article asserts, that the society has given itself up to dissension; nothing can better prove that he does not know any thing about it. There never was an association where more unison, concord, and harmony, existed. Even in the academies of the Institute, a better understanding does not prevail. What is remarkable is, that not even the shade of a political discussion has been introduced; and yet the anonymous writer pretends that the Council is composed of Whigs and Tories, and adds, that he will not name the members of the Opposition. It is a pity that he has had recourse to this good-natured suppression, and more so, that he has not named himself, as it would have been seen whether he is Whig or Tory, or both, alternately, according to time and circumstance. It was only necessary for him to have consulted the accounts of the general sittings, and he would have seen whether the greatest unanimity does not prevail; for the foolery introduced by some narrow-minded persons has not for a moment interrupted it. As yet, there has been only one discussion of any importance, relative to two opinions purely literary, a circumstance which takes place every day in all learned societies. One party said, 'Your learned dissertations fatigue us;' the other replied, 'Your elegant trifles do not amuse us;' but the terms made use of were decorous, and such as are suitable to those accustomed to the academic style. This difference amongst friends was forgotten in a few days, and this is what the anonymous writer transforms into a schism which menaces the existence of the society! This is exactly the language of a man dissatisfied with himself, and with others, who vociferates that all is lost, because nobody pays any attention to him. There is scarcely a minister who, when dismissed, does not cry out that the kingdom is about to be put to the fire and sword!

The anonymous author says, that these divisions are very prejudicial to *The Asiatic Journal*, and people are led to suppose that the prosperity of the paper interests him nearly. He says, that

now some distinguished Orientalists insert their productions in 'The Memoirs of the Geographical Society.' The writer, at least, cannot complain personally; 'The Asiatic Journal' has not refused to insert any thing for him, for he has offered nothing. I have been even told by a member of the Commission of this Journal, that the Commission never rejected any thing, but inserted all that was sent to it; a fact which proves that it has neither the will nor the means of being eclectic. The anonymous author wishes it to be believed, that he has offered his works to the Geographical Society; but the only member who has furnished any thing to it, is Mr. Amédée Joubert; and it is known that he, nevertheless, offers the tribute of it to 'The Asiatic Journal,' to the great advantage of the readers of both publications.

The anonymous writer is very angry with a learned foreigner, because he has been chosen to make a literary journey in the Levant. One would suppose that he himself possessed all the knowledge requisite for exploring the antiquities of Persia, and that he was endowed with all the qualities, moral, intellectual, and physical, necessary to brave the Curdes, the Turcomans, and the Khadjars. Why does he not show himself there? Why does he not express his desire? Why does he not offer his talents, his strength, and his devotedness? Must people guess that he exists, and that he is ready to sacrifice himself for the good of science? Or, is there not one complaisant individual, who will consent to give testimony to his great capacity, to his enlightened mind, and to his courageous disposition? He reproaches the traveller with having been born in Germany; and says, that in England, the natives, however ignorant they may be, are always preferred to foreigners. This liberal principle is, no doubt, excellent in certain circumstances; its observation ought strictly to be recommended to the collectors of excise duties, and the directors of army provisions; but the academies sometimes disobey it; and it is to a permit of this kind that France owes its Hanc and its Visconti. The Westphalian, Kœmpfer, undertook his voyage in the service of Sweden and Holland. The Swede, Thunberg, was sent to Japan by the Dutch East India Company. Colbert, less delicate than the anonymous writer in question, sent Vansleb into Egypt, to obtain details relative to that country, and to purchase manuscripts for the King's library: Vansleb, however, had the misfortune to be a foreigner. Otter, spite of his being a Swede, was well received by M. Maurepas, holding a situation in the King of France's library, and was named Professor of Arabic, and Member of the Academy of Belles Lettres. The voyage upon which he was sent had not a literary object alone; but, what is unlucky for the doctrine of the anonymous writer, they affected political and commercial utility. Horwemann, Solander, the two Fosters, and Burkhard, were not natives of Great Britain. The first Secretary of the Royal Asiatic Society of London, and Comenator of the British Museum, was a German; and

the University of that city has just chosen a Prussian as Professor of Sanscrit. This is deplorable, without doubt; but it will be seen that esteem for men of merit has, at all times, rendered those persons worthy of appreciating them rather cosmopolite; and that England herself, whatever confidence she may have, and justly, in the talents of her children, does not carry blind patriotism and partiality for citizenship so far as the anonymous writer would wish. I denounce him to the editors of 'The Revue Britannique,' who go a long way to seek for bad articles, whilst they have under their thumb authors ready to furnish them,—which would spare the latter the expense of postage, and themselves the trouble of translating.

The writer pretends that the learned traveller obtained the preference, if preference there be, because the ill which he had spoken of Oriental poetry had disposed influential persons in his favour. It appears that the anonymous author knows influential persons who have an aversion for Eastern poetry, and, perhaps, he has taken upon himself the office of interpreter to these persons. But there is here one difficulty: the learned German had almost completed his preparations for his departure for Constantinople, when the quarrel broke out. He had then been named a long time, when he acquired this new merit; and thus it could not have been that which so forcibly determined the French Government in his favour. M. Schulz, however, had so many claims as not to be reduced to flatter an unjust, intolerant, and exclusive opinion against his conviction. Where, then, has the anonymous author seen men of letters condemned to such extremities?

But here is something more serious: the writer lets it be understood, that the last Minister for Foreign Affairs was much attached to Germans who had been converted; and hints that the traveller owes the favour (for he will absolutely make it a favour) of which he has profited, to his change of religion. This is beyond a joke; and the insinuation is in very bad taste, for it touches upon a matter from which men of letters ought to abstain in their debates. Unfortunately, however, this is another falsity: the traveller has not been converted; he is still a Lutheran, and, what is more, a theologian, and Professor in a Lutheran university. The anonymous writer will, no doubt, be as sorry as we are, that, in his quality of Catholic, and an honest man, he has deceived his correspondent, calumniated a minister acting for the interest of science, and assigned an odious, and absolutely false, motive to an honourable act. These observations, and many others which are suppressed here, are susceptible of being usefully developed; and, with very slight additions, they would be perfectly clear and intelligible to foreigners, and rather more *piquantes* for the public in general. If the anonymous writer is of this opinion, he will have the goodness to give his *French name*. The writer of these lines will hasten to imitate him, though, in fact, it is hardly necessary, as he has already had the pleasure of telling him, personally, a part of the truths which he has now the honour to submit.

THE IMPERIAL EXILE.

HE who had once gone forth upon the earth
 In his destroying majesty—whose sword
 To victory was wed—whose awful nod
 Proclaim'd the fall of thrones, or bade them rise—
 Who from his lofty pillar in the clouds
 Beheld the nations crouching at his feet,
 O'er-dazzled by his brightness,—now within
 The narrow circuit of a lonely isle
 Sadly reposed: his reign of might was o'er,
 His glory had departed. He was calm
 As is the bosom of an unstirr'd lake,
 O'er-shaded by the mountain, and men look'd
 Upon the fallen conqueror, and deem'd
 His spirit was at rest; yet on his brow
 Were graven deep, unfathomable thoughts,
 That the unskill'd beholder could not scan,
 Which were at war with peace; for his was not
 The healthful rest that waits on weariness—
 The sullen slumber of some fiery flood
 That vainly strove to heave the rocks aside,
 Then chafes itself until it be consumed,—
 Such rest was his—all joyless and unblest.
 Yet in his sleep his spirit wander'd forth
 O'er scenes departed—nightly did he dream
 Of thronging legions rushing to the fight—
 Of battle's rage, and victory's loud voice—
 Of riding forth upon the whirlwind's blast,
 Grasping destruction—of pale, shrinking foes,
 Quailing beneath the terrors of his wrath—
 Of triumph's deafening shout—of crowned kings,
 Bending their heads before him in the dust—
 Of universal sway, the idle dream
 That lured him to his ruin:—then he'd wake
 To darkness, silence, nameless misery,
 Feeling afresh the horrors of his fall—
 And, in his lone and utter helplessness,
 Weep tears of blood. His midnight agonies
 Were all unknown, and man beheld them not,—
 His pride, that still dwelt with him in his fall,
 Knew how to veil them from the vulgar ken.
 Ambition was his idol—lust of power
 Had madden'd him, until he blindly deem'd
 That he should hold the living world in chains,
 And men should bow before him as a god.
 With the hoarse murmurs of the mighty sea
 His own were mingled—and in bitterness
 He cursed all nature and himself—then died.

EXAMINATION OF NATIVE PUPILS IN CALCUTTA.

YESTERDAY morning, (Feb. 28, 1828,) the public examination and distribution of the prizes, to the pupils of the seminaries superintended or supported by the School Society, was held at the house of Baboo Gopee Mohun Deb, in Sobha Bazar. Sir Charles Grey, Sir Edward Ryan, Mr. H. Shakespear, Maharaja Baidyanath Ray, and a number of other Native and European Gentlemen, were present. The prizes, consisting of English books, were distributed to the classes, as called up in succession by the secretary to the Society, Mr. Hare, by whom the detailed examinations had been previously conducted. Some occasional verification of the progress of the scholars was also made, much to their satisfaction, by different visitors. The classes were partly Bengali and partly English, in the latter of which the senior pupils were found to have made very respectable progress; having acquired a knowledge of Roman, Grecian, and English History, a thorough conversancy with the grammatical construction of the language, and familiarity with the general facts of geography, as well as the political divisions of Europe and Asia. After the examination, the following recitations were given :—

Southampton and Essex.

<i>Southampton.</i>	Ramconoy Sen.
<i>Essex.</i>	Iswar Chunder Saha.
<i>Officer.</i>	Chunder Koomar Banerji

Juba and Syphax.

<i>Juba.</i>	Samchund Goopta.
<i>Syphax.</i>	Ramtonoo Lahoorry.

Henry and Lord Chief Justice.

<i>Henry.</i>	Madhoosooden Sen.
<i>Chief Justice.</i>	Hurry Mohun Mullik.

Priuli and Jaffier.

<i>Priuli.</i>	Hurishchunder Dhur.
<i>Jaffier.</i>	Nilmony Bysakh.

Cato's Senate.

<i>Cato.</i>	Jadob Chunder Das Ghose.
<i>Sempronius.</i>	Doukinath Numdy.
<i>Lucius.</i>	Adit Chunder Das.
<i>Decius.</i>	Brahmemohun Chakrabutty.
<i>Marcus.</i>	Nobin Chunder Ghosal.

The several performers acquitted themselves with great credit.

The scene between Henry and the Chief Justice was singularly interesting, from the very correct manner in which the beautiful language, and noble sentiments, of the scene were enunciated by two very young lads. Cato's Senate scene, and Cato himself, in particular, displayed great merit.

It is highly satisfactory to find the operations of this Society continue to be so actively and successfully sustained, notwithstanding, in common with all voluntary institutions in this country, it has lost part of its interest with its novelty. We doubt much if its character be generally known. The great object is, the improved instruction of Native youth in their own language, and eventually in English. The first is effected by the superintendence of Native schools, many of which are held in the houses of respectable Natives; by occasional gratuities to the Bengali masters, when they are active; by a liberal distribution of elementary books, and by an annual examination and presentation of rewards. The Society also maintains a Bengali School, at its own charge, containing about two hundred boys; whilst, in the schools of the first description, amounting to between eighty and ninety, there are about three thousand pupils. For the second purpose, or English tuition, the Society maintains two English Schools, admission to which is, in some degree, the reward of proficiency acquired in Bengali. In these Schools, the Society has one hundred and eighty scholars, but it also maintains thirty pupils in the Anglo-Indian College, selected from the most industrious and promising of its own élèves. It is but justice to add, that, in general, these scholars rank amongst the brightest ornaments of the College. The expense of these arrangements is defrayed by private subscriptions, assisted by Government; and, with reference to the immense good that is thus effected, we know of no case in which the liberal bounty of individuals has been more profitably exercised.—*Gov. Gazette.*

A FAREWELL.

Oh ! 'tis the penalty we pay in this frail world of ours,
To find that hues which soonest fade are born of sweetest flowers :
The brightest clouds an ardent eye with rapture gazes on,
Are only seen in evening skies—we look, and they are gone—
Farewell !

Thou bright and lovely one ! we met, and thou wilt disappear,
Like summer flower and evening cloud, and leave me wond'ring here ;
Yet to have known or seen thee *once* is never to forget,
While memory triumphs over space—we hold thy image yet—
Farewell !

Peace to thy path—where'er it be, may all good angels keep ;
And may his hand be over thee who rules the stormy deep.
Forget not, in thy sunny climes, those English hearts that beat
With no less warmth for thee, though doom'd no more on earth to
meet.
Farewell !

Farewell—I know where'er thou art, that thou must ever be
That idol of another's love which thou hast been to me ;
I know thy image may be lodged in some far worthier shrine ;
But I, too, know 'another's love' can never equal mine.
Farewell !

DEBATE AT THE EAST INDIA HOUSE.

Wednesday, July 2, 1828.

CAPTAIN PRESCOTT'S CASE.

THIS day the adjourned debate (from this day fortnight) was resumed, on the following resolution proposed by Sir Charles FORBES :

‘ That the Court of Proprietors fully approve of the measures adopted by the Court of Directors, in bringing the case of an abuse of patronage before a legal tribunal; and although Captain Prescott appears to have acted incautiously and imprudently, yet, having been acquitted by the verdict of a jury of the charge preferred against him, and the Proprietors being also satisfied that he was not actuated by any corrupt motives, they are not disposed to withdraw their confidence from him as a member of the Direction.’

The CHAIRMAN said, that the Court was specially summoned to consider of a motion which had been discussed at some length a fortnight ago, and which had been adjourned to this day. The Court, he was sure, must be aware, that it was of very great importance that a just decision should be come to with respect to the question to which he alluded; and on that account nine of the Directors, in their capacity of proprietors, had signed a requisition, demanding a ballot.

General THORNTON wished to put a question to the hon. Chairman. It appeared, from what had been said by the hon. Chairman at the last Court, that the patronage of Captain Prescott was withholden from him. Now, he wished to know whether that line of conduct was founded on the circumstances which had already been disclosed to the Proprietors, or whether it resulted from any other proceeding that was now going on?

The Hon. D. KINNAIRD said, he had put the question at the last Court, and the answer was, if he mistook not, that when it was determined that Captain Prescott and others should be tried before a jury of their country for the offence imputed to them, Captain Prescott expressed a wish that he should have nothing to do with the disposal of patronage until the trial was over.

General THORNTON said, it was to that point his question went. He wished to know whether the privilege of disposing of patronage was now withheld from Captain Prescott on account of the original transactions which led to the trial, or whether it was withheld in consequence of any proceedings that were now going on. This he conceived to be a material point, and ought therefore to be cleared up.

The CHAIRMAN.—The hon. Gentleman (Mr. D. Kinnaird) had anticipated what he meant to state. Nothing new whatever had taken place with reference to this transaction subsequent to the last discussion. He had at that time stated to the Court, not that the Court of Directors, but that certain members of the Direction, had caused it to be intimated to Captain Prescott, that if he made any proposition relating to his patronage, they would withhold their assent therefrom.

General THORNTON said, he understood that the patronage was originally withheld from Captain Prescott until the issue of the trial was known. That issue was known; Captain Prescott had been acquitted;

and he could not conceive why the patronage should be still kept from that gentleman.

Mr. LOWNDES said, that after reading the papers relative to the case very carefully, (for he sat up till three o'clock to do so,) he was of opinion that Captain Prescott had been guilty of no dishonourable act, but only of imprudence. Thoughtlessness and imprudence, however, frequently occasioned much mischief. He thought it wrong that the Directors should have so much patronage at their disposal. He saw no reason why cadetships and writerships should not be publicly sold, as military commissions were. He found fault with Captain Prescott, as he would with his own brother, under the same circumstances. Such thoughtlessness as Captain Prescott had been guilty of, might have the effect of undermining our Indian Government. It was said of the great Lord Bacon, that if he had not been guilty of corruption himself, he had allowed his servant to be so. He was willing to allow Captain Prescott to retain his patronage, but he would not permit him to dispose of it till two of his brother Directors approved of the objects to which it was proposed to be applied. If, however, that proposal did not meet with the approbation of the Court, he thought it right that the patronage should revert to the Court of Proprietors, to whom it originally belonged, and should be bestowed on the children and widows of the officers who had fallen in the last war. The hon. Proprietor then blamed Dr. Back for not making the Directors acquainted with the transaction between the months of August and February, and not before he heard that 900 guineas were asked for the cadetship. He next found fault with Mr. Brougham's speech on the trial, which he said was confused and full of tautology. He was surprised that an East India Director should employ a Whig advocate. (*A laugh.*) That was another proof of Captain Prescott's want of caution. He then expressed a hope that no part of the patronage of the Directors would be given to Dr. Back, for he thought it would be a bad precedent to reward a man who concealed such a transaction for several months.

Mr. WEDDING observed, that as it was intended to decide this question by ballot, it was not necessary that he should trouble the Court with many observations. Indeed, he would have given a silent vote in favour of the hon. Baronet's resolution, had it not been for the observations made at the last Court, by a learned Gentleman (Mr. Freshfield) who sat near him. That learned Gentleman then said, 'that he would rather be in the situation of Captain Prescott, than in the situation of those who had advised his prosecution;' and, to give importance to what he said, he had farther told the Court, 'that he knew the inside as well as the outside of the case.' Now, however incautiously, imprudently, or unreasonably, this might have been said, yet having been said, it behoved all those who thought as he did, that they owed a vast debt of gratitude to the Executive Body for the manner in which they had vindicated the honour of the Company, to express that feeling. It behoved them, while they did justice to the individual, to do justice also to the Court of Directors. It was evident that there had been a scandalous traffic in the patronage of the Company; yet, after mature consideration of the papers, he was disposed to support the motion, and to give Captain Prescott a moral acquittal in that Court, in support of the legal acquittal he had received elsewhere. (*Hear.*) No blame, however, could be thrown upon the Directors for instituting the prosecution; for it should be recollected, that the prosecution was approved of by the Attorney and

Solicitor-General, by Lord Tenterden, and even by Mr. Brougham, the counsel for Captain Prescott. There was a fact in the papers which dissipated all suspicion as to the motives of Captain Prescott, for it was stated that Mr. Sutton had saved the life of his son. Was it to be wondered at, that Captain Prescott should be anxious to oblige the man who had rendered him such a service? The hon. Proprietor concluded with expressing a wish, that there should be embodied in the original motion the following words:—‘That the Proprietors are desirous most cordially to thank the Court of Directors for the manner in which they have prosecuted an inquiry so deeply affecting the honourable character of their own body, and the best interests of the East India Company.’

Sir C. FORBES expressed his readiness to acquiesce in the proposed alteration.

An hon. Proprietor opposed the mixing up of a vote of thanks with the original motion. If thanks were to be voted, the vote ought to be a direct and substantive one.

Sir P. LAURIE was of opinion, that the question, as to Captain Prescott should be kept entirely distinct from the conduct of the Court of Directors.

Mr. D. KINNAIRD contended, that the object of the motion was not to acquit Captain Prescott, for he had already been acquitted, but to declare the opinion of the Court with respect to the conduct of the Court of Directors. Captain Prescott had been tried and acquitted by a jury, upon a charge of conspiracy, which was the most unfair mode of prosecution that could be resorted to, as far as regarded the defendant. With Captain Prescott, therefore, the Court had nothing to do. Then how did the question come before the Court? In this way: The late Chairman, conceiving that something like unfair conduct had been imputed to the Court of Directors, said it was necessary that the Court of Proprietors should be put in possession of the papers, and upon his motion they were printed. The hon. Proprietor concluded by recommending the Court to support the resolution, and thus approve of what the Directors had done; and, under this resolution, the Court of Directors would be empowered to restore to Captain Prescott the patronage which was still withheld from him.

Mr. PALMER approved of the conduct of the Court of Directors in instituting the prosecution against Captain Prescott; but, that individual having been acquitted after a full trial, were they now to proceed further? He thought they ought not. Having been acquitted in a court of law, he was fully entitled to the confidence and acquittal of the Court of Directors, and why he had not received it he could not imagine. Captain Prescott had met the charge as an honourable man would do. When the accusation was made, he said, ‘Inquire fully into it;’ and the result was, his honourable acquittal. He admitted that Captain Prescott had acted imprudently, but still he thought it was their bounden duty, in respect to themselves, to adopt this resolution.

Mr. DARBY said, if he could believe that Captain Prescott had been guilty of corruption, he would be the last man to stand up in the Court to speak in his favour. He admitted that he had been indiscreet; but indiscretion and corruption were very different things. Captain Prescott was a warm-hearted, kind man—he would say, a most honourable man—and if he had acted imprudently, he was more to be pitied than blamed.

Captain MAXWELL supported the motion. There was, he observed,

one point in the evidence, which, in the minds of some persons, would weigh considerably against Captain Prescott. He alluded to the letter in which Captain Prescott alleged that he was acquainted with the family of Dr. Back. In his opinion, however, this was nothing more than an inadvertence, arising entirely from his confidence in the representation of his most intimate friend. He did not mean to deny that Captain Prescott had acted imprudently, but imprudence ought not to be too severely punished.

Mr. GAHAGHAN considered discussion unnecessary, as the question was to be decided by ballot. He thought it necessary to state, however, that the decision of the court of law should not be binding on the Proprietors, because the latter had several cases to consider, whereas the former had only one.

Mr. S. DIXON was of opinion that the discussion would be extremely useful, because it would enable gentlemen to go to the ballot with a more perfect knowledge of the subject. He would say nothing with respect to the general merits of the case, but this he must observe, that no man had ever been guilty of a greater act of indiscretion than that gentleman had been. The conduct attributed to Captain Prescott in having stated, on his honour, that he wanted the cadetship for a young man whose family resided in Devonshire, and with whom he was well acquainted, when the fact was, that Dr. Back had not been in Devonshire for a long period, was exceedingly reprehensible. If he had said, 'I make this application, because a gentleman, on whose representation I can confidently rely, has satisfied me of the respectability of the party on whose behalf I make this application,' it would have materially altered the case. In his opinion, the resolution ought to be a substantive one, and not mixed up with a vote of thanks to the Directors.

General THORNTON said, that, in his opinion, the innocence of Captain Prescott had been fully proved, and therefore he ought to be restored to all his rights and privileges.

Mr. FRESHFIELD expressed his regret for having, at a former Court, censured the opinion of the learned Serjeant, the standing counsel to the Company, who, along with other learned gentlemen, had advised the prosecution of Captain Prescott. He had spoken from the impulse of the moment, and he was sorry that he had approached the opinion of that learned person without due consideration. At the same time, he must say, that he did not think the prosecution, which had inflicted the most acute pain on Captain Prescott, was called for. An hon. Proprietor (Mr. Weeding) had dwelt strongly on the words used by him on a former occasion, when he said that he was acquainted with the inside as well as the outside of the case. The hon. Proprietor seemed to think that in using this expression, he (Mr. Freshfield) meant to insinuate that he knew something of a peculiar nature which had occurred in the Court of Directors. He meant no such thing. He had said, and said truly, that he knew the inside as well as the outside of this transaction, because it was his duty to probe the matter to the bottom, in his professional capacity. He had heard the whole of it, in the most undisguised manner, from Captain Prescott; and he declared, on his honour, in his conscience, and as he stood before his God, that he believed Captain Prescott was innocent of any corrupt intention. It was useless, perhaps, to discuss whether this question should or should not be decided by ballot, because it was in the power of any nine Proprietors to insist on a ballot; but he confessed that he thought it would have been better if the question were

to be settled in the General Court by those who had heard the discussion. He should, therefore, submit that the ballot ought not to be resorted to, unless in the event of the numbers being nicely balanced in the General Court.

The CHAIRMAN expressed his pleasure at hearing the explanation which the hon. and learned Proprietor had given of the speech he favoured the Court with at their last meeting. The learned Sergeant was present, but the forms of the Court prevented him from addressing them. He, however, spoke the sentiments of their learned adviser, when he said that he would never take offence at the discussion of the propriety of any opinion he might give. It was necessary he should inform their Court, that their decision was required upon the question originally moved for; although an amendment had been suggested, it had neither been moved nor seconded, and therefore was not before the Court. Upon that question, he and eight brother Directors, in the character of Proprietors, had determined to call for a ballot; and, with all respect to the learned Proprietor, he thought the executive body acted properly in resolving to give the Proprietors at large an opportunity of expressing their opinion on the subject. The Directors were in some degree a party in the question, and he should be sorry to hear it said hereafter, that they had not afforded the whole body of Proprietors an occasion of deciding whether the Executive Body had acted with judgment and discretion. An hon. Proprietor had insinuated that the papers had been printed at the instance of the Court of Directors, in order to induce the Court of Proprietors to throw their shield over them. The facts of the case did not warrant such a representation. The papers were printed at the suggestion of Captain Prescott. On the 28th of May last, Captain Prescott said he would not be made the scape-goat of any person, and requested that the papers might be printed. This remark naturally called up the then Chairman, Mr. Lindsay, who moved that the papers should be printed, which motion was seconded by Captain Prescott. As the answer which he (the Chairman) had given to the question respecting the present state of Captain Prescott's patronage, did not appear to have been perfectly understood, he would add a few words more on the point. The trial which took place on the 6th of March, referred to the case of Cadet Peck; but, upon the 12th of March, the Select Committee informed the Court of Directors that they had discovered another case of an exceedingly suspicious nature,—namely, that of Cadet Bayley, who had received his appointment at the solicitation of Captain Prescott. Thereupon, several of the senior Directors requested him (the Chairman) to inform Captain Prescott, that they would resist any proposition for granting him his share of patronage until the case of Cadet Bayley, as well as that of Cadet Peck, had been submitted to the Court of Proprietors. He trusted that this explanation was satisfactory to the Court. (*Hear, hear.*)

Mr. D. KINNAIRD said, he had not intended to represent that the printing of the papers was the act of the Court of Directors.

Sir C. FORBES was desirous of making a few observations before the question was put. The motion was now, it appeared, to be decided by ballot; and thus Captain Prescott was, in fact, to be tried a second time. Unquestionably, any nine Proprietors had in their power to call for such a decision, and it could not be refused; and, however he might regret that the Court of Directors had deemed it necessary to resort to that proceeding, he would not find fault with them, because he doubted

not it had arisen from a strong sense of what they conceived to be their public duty, although, in his opinion, erroneously. But he sincerely hoped and trusted, that as the Directors had hitherto observed a line of conduct entirely passive with regard to this question, they would persevere in the same course with respect to the ballot; for the Court needed not to be told, that when the Court of Directors think it necessary to call for a ballot, on any question, and put forth what was called their strength on the occasion, the odds against the motion were fearful indeed. He had been apprised that there was no instance on record, in which the Court of Directors had put forth their strength in a ballot without succeeding. He trusted the Court would not misunderstand him. He did not for one moment anticipate that the Directors would pursue any other conduct, with respect to the ballot, than they had observed during the whole of the previous proceedings in the case. On the contrary, he believed that this would be a signal instance of the impartiality of the Directors. It was, he believed, from a too great anxiety to do what they conceived to be right, that the Directors had been induced to take the step of calling for a ballot. That course having, however, been determined on, he hoped he would not see, as he had on other ballots, the doors besieged by hundreds ready to vote in support, as they expressed themselves, of the Executive Body, without knowing, many of them, what the question was. He thought it necessary to say, in justice to Captain Prescott, that he was quite sure nothing could be more acceptable to him than to have the question decided by ballot. He had not conversed with Captain Prescott on the subject of the motion, but had brought it forward from motives of justice alone. When Captain Prescott offered himself as a candidate for a seat in the Direction, Sir C. Forbes was so circumstanced as to be obliged to oppose him. He had never either asked or received from Captain Prescott any patronage or favour whatever, nor was it likely he ever should. He mentioned these circumstances to show that he could not be influenced by any private or personal considerations; but he thought Captain Prescott's case was one of extreme hardship and cruelty. He did not impute that cruelty to any party, but thought it had arisen out of the unfortunate circumstances of the case. Captain Prescott had suffered to a degree beyond that which any man in Court would wish his enemy to endure. (*Hear.*) It had been a matter of astonishment to him, and many other persons, that Captain Prescott had been able to bear up under his sufferings during the last twelve or fourteen months. He had watched the progress of the case, and saw no prospect of a termination of Captain Prescott's sufferings, unless some person came forward with a motion in that Court. Under these circumstances, he had felt it his duty to bring the question before the Court; and after the strong, he might almost say general, support he had received, he felt not the slightest apprehension of the issue of a ballot. (*Hear.*) If the motion had been decided at the last Court, a great majority would have voted for it; and in the present Court, he believed, ninety out of a hundred would vote for it. The hon. Baronet concluded by expressing a hope that the ballot would take place at the earliest possible moment, because every hour was adding to the cruelty of the situation in which Captain Prescott was placed, and which must excite the sympathy of every humane mind.

MR. CARRUTHERS said, that, after the observations of the hon. Baronet, which tended to throw a degree of suspicion on the votes of Proprietors, he felt it necessary to declare how he intended to decide upon

the question. He considered that every gentleman who should vote upon this question was placed in the situation of a jurymen, and was as much bound to give an impartial decision. He would vote for the question, because, though he believed Captain Prescott to have been guilty of great indiscretion, yet there was no evidence of moral turpitude, and he could not consent to visit the former with the same punishment as the latter.

Sir C. FORBES said, the hon. Proprietor seemed to have misunderstood the tenor of his remarks. He felt assured that the Court of Directors would exercise no influence, directly nor indirectly, with respect to the ballot.

The CHAIRMAN said, the Court of Directors were determined to adhere to the same passive line of conduct which they had hitherto pursued. He, and the other Directors who had signed the requisition for the ballot, would not vote at all upon the question. (*Hear, hear.*)

Mr. LOWNDES asked whether it was the intention of the resolution to acquit Captain Prescott of imprudence.

The CHAIRMAN said, that those who voted must judge what the intention of the resolution was. The question had originated with the Proprietors, and the Court of Directors were anxious that it should finish with them.

The ballot was then fixed for Wednesday, the 9th of July, and the Court adjourned till that time, when, on the question being put, the numbers appeared—for the question, 408; against it, 40; majority, 368.

CIVIL AND MILITARY APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS, AND CHANGES IN INDIA.

[B. signifies Bombay—M. Madras—and C. Calcutta.]

- Alexander, A., Mr., to be Head Assistant to Board of Revenue in Lower Provinces.—C. Jan. 10.
- Archbold, E. C., Lieut. 8th Lt. Cav., to be deputy Paymaster at Benares, v. Ward transferred to Political Department.—C. Jan. 18.
- Andrews, C., Capt. 64th N.I., to have charge of Agra Provin. batt. during absence of Capt. Blackwell on furl.—C. Jan. 23.
- Alexander, W. F., Ens., rem. from 50th to 5th extra N.I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Anderson, W. S., Surg.-Staff, Surgeon to troops on Coast of Tenasserim, to have charge of Medical Stores at Moalmein.—M. Feb. 1.
- Athill, S., Lieut., Eng., on furl. to Eur., for health.—B. Jan. 21.
- Alves, Nathaniel, Capt. Mad. N.I., to be Polit. Agent at Bhopaul.—C. Jan. 28.
- Bird, R.N., Mr., to be fifth Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit, for Division of Benares.—C. Jan. 31.
- Barwell, E. R., Mr., to be third member of the Board of Revenue of Lower Provinces.—C. Jan. 10.
- Barlow, R. M., Sen., to be a Member of Mofussil Special Commission.—C. Jan. 10.
- Bayley, G. T., Mr., to be Collector of Land Revenue and Deputy Collector of Customs and Town duties of Ghazepoor.—C. Jan. 10.
- Rushby, G. A., Mr., to be Secretary to Board of Revenue in Lower Provinces.—C. Jan. 10.
- Bluett, W. H., Clarke, Ens., 45th N.I., to be Lieut. v. Bracken, dec.—C. Jan. 18.
- Bazett, C. Y., Cadet Cav., prom. to Cornet.—C. Jan. 18.
- Brett, F. H., Assit.-Surg., app. to Med. Duties of Civil Station of Shajehanpore, v. Nisbet resigned.—Jan. 23.

- Baker, Wm., Cadet, prom. to Ens.—C. Jan. 23.
 Bignell, W. P., Ens., posted to 1st Extra N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Brockman, G., Ens., posted to 24th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Brakeman, G., Ens., posted to 24th N. I.—C. Jan. 31.
 Barrett, T. C., Ens., posted to 65th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Brodie, Thos., Ens., posted to 60th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Buckley, W., Capt. 5th Lt. Cav. on furl. to Eur.—C. Jan. 9.
 Begbie, P. J., Lieut. Mad. reg. of Artill., on furl. for health.—C. Jan. 2.
 Bark, J., Lieut., rem. from 4th to 3d Batt. Artill.—M. Jan. 25.
 Bishop, H. A., Lieut. 15th N. I., returned to duty.—M. Feb. 5.
 Boles, T., Col. 48th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—M. Jan. 9.
 Ballantyne, Lieut.-Col., to succeed Lieut. Col. Campbell, in command of Cundaish.—B. Jan. 17.
 Barr, D., Major, to be Town-Major and President of Committee of Survey.—B. Jan. 17.
 Bracken, W., Mr., to be Assist. to Sec. of Board of Trade.—C. Feb. 7. *
 Borthwick, William, Capt., Madras N. I., to be Polit. Agent at Mohidpoor.—C. Jan. 25.
 Cracroft, W., Mr., to be second Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit for Division of Dacca.—C. Jan. 24.
 Colvin, A. J., Mr., to be Member of Mofussil Special Commission.—C. Jan. 10.
 Cathcart, R., Mr., to be Collector of Jaunpoor.—C. Jan. 10.
 Cautley, R., Cornet, 10th Lt. Cav., to be Lieut., v. Shipton dec.—Jan. 18.
 Corbet, James, Assist.-Surg., to be Medical Officer to Political Agent in Harrowtee.—C. Jan. 18.
 Carnegie, W., Ens., rem. from 15th to 58th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Clarke, A., Mr., Assist.-Surg., rem. from 15th to 43d N. I.—C. Jan. 11.
 Cooper, H., Surg., returned to duty.—C. Jan. 21.
 Coxwell, J. A. S., Ens., posted to 49th N. I.—M. Jan. 18.
 Crawford, J. A., Ens., posted to 46th N. I.—Jan. 18.
 Carruthers, D., Lieut., rem. from 3d to 14th Batt. Artill.—M. Jan. 25.
 Clarke, R., Esq., to act as Secretary to Gov. in Mil. Dep. during the absence of Mr. Chamier on other duty.—M. Feb. 12.
 Cherry, P. T., Cornet, rem. from 4th to 8th Lt. Cav.—M. Feb. 12.
 Cleveland, J. W., Capt., 38th N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 22.
 Campbell, D., Lieut.-Col., to command Malwa Field Force.—B. Jan. 17.
 Chambers, W., Ens. 13th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Spence dec.—B. Jan. 17.
 Campbell, 3d Assist. Commis.-Gen., to be acting 2d Assist.-Commis.-Gen., v. Molesworth on duty elsewhere.—B. Jan. 21.
 Cardew, C., Mr., to be Judge and Magistrate of Dacca and Jelalpoore.—C. Feb. 7.
 Cheap, G. C., Mr., to be Judge and Mag. of Mymunsing.—C. Feb. 7.
 Cook, J. F. G., Mr., to be Magistrate of Bardwaun.—C. Feb. 7.
 Dunsmure, J., Mr., to be Collector of Banda.—C. Jan. 10.
 Drummond, J., Ens. 19th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Drummond, dec.—C. Jan. 19.
 D'Oyley, T., Lieut. and Brev. Capt., to be Adj. to 7th New Batt. Artill.—C. Jan. 1.
 Dunmore, M. R., Ens., rem. from 38th to 69th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Dundas, T. G., Lieut. 4th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Jan. 9.
 Day, E., Lieut.-Col. 51st N. I., on furl. to Eur.—C. Jan. 18.
 Drought, J. R., Cadet, prom. to Ens. 16th N. I.—M. Jan. 11.
 Donatt, A. F., Cadet, prom. to Ens. 29th N. I.—M. Jan. 11.
 Dobbs, R. S., Ens., posted to 16th N. I.—M. Jan. 16.
 Davidson, R., Assist.-Surg., to be Surg. 2d brig. Horse Artill.—M. Jan. 26.
 Davidson, Lieut., to be an Acting Third Assistant-Commissary-Gen., v. Lang.—B. Jan. 21.
 Dodd, J., Apoth. 2d Eur. regt., on furl. to Eur. for health.—B. Jan. 22.
 Dunbar, J., Mr., to be Registrar of Mymunsing, and joint Magistrate stationed Sherepoore.—C. Feb. 7.
 Ewing, J. M., to be Judge and Magistrate of Zillah of the City of Patna.—C. Jan. 31.

- Erskine, J. F., Cadet of Inf., prom. to Ens.—C. Jan. 18.
 Earl, E. M., Lieut. 24th N. I., to act as Mahratta Interp. and Staff Officer to Capt. Spiller, Command. a Detachment.—B. Jan. 21.
 Egan, R., Lieut.-Col. Comm. 16th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—B. Jan. 10.
 Fane, W., Mr., to be Collector of Midnapore.—C. Jan. 10.
 Fleming, R., Mr., admitted an Assist.-Surg.—C. Jan. 23.
 Farisworth, J. M., Lieut. 44th N. I., perm. to resign.—C. Jan. 23.
 Forrest, W., St. L., Ens. posted to 29th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Farrington, H. W., Lieut. to act as Interp. and Quar.-Mas. to 2d N. I., in absence of Lieut. Boyle.—C. Jan. 8.
 Frith, J. H., Major of Artill. rem. from 2d Horse Brig. to 3d batt.—M. Jan. 12.
 Freese, C. R., Ens. posted to 1st Eur. regt.—M. Jan. 21.
 Flemming, W., Major 19th N. I., on furlough to Neilgherry Hills for health.—B. Jan. 10.
 Grant, John, Assist. Surg., to be Surgeon, v. Moscrop, retired, v. Reddie, dec.—C. Jan. 18.
 Grote, F., Lieutenant of Artill., to be Jun.-Assist. to Agent to Gov.-Gen., in Sangor and Nerbudda territories.—C. Jan. 18.
 Grimes, H. S., Ens., rem. from 32d to 46th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Golding, G. W., Ens., posted to 35th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Godfrey, John, Ens., posted to 61st N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Gausson, D., Ens., posted to 42d N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Gordon, A. C., Assist.-Surg., posted to 7th Cav.—C. Jan. 3.
 Garner, Jos., Maj. 31st N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Jan. 18.
 George, J., Lieut. 19th N. I., on furl. to Singapore for health.—C. Jan. 9.
 Gordon, W. C., Cadet, prom. to 2d Lieut. of Artill.—M. Jan. 11.
 Godfrey, T. A. C., Cadet, prom. to 2d Lieut. of Artill.—M. Jan. 11.
 Gibbon, R., Surg., to be Garrison Surgeon of Trichinopoly, v. Poppin, on furl.—M. Feb. 8.
 Glover, J. C., Lieut. 13th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 15.
 Golding, B. Mr., to be Additional Registrar at Tipperah, and Joint Magistrate, stationed at Neacolli.—C. Feb. 7.
 Harrington, T. L., Cadet of Cavalry, prom. to Cornet.—C. Jan. 11.
 Hunter, G., Cadet of Infantry, prom. to Ens.—C. Jan. 11.
 Henderson, T., Assist.-Surg., to be Surgeon, v. Patterson, dec.—C. Jan. 18.
 Henderson, J., Surg., app. to 41st N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Hawes, G., Major 51st N. I., returned to duty.—C. Jan. 10.
 Hay, W. E., Lieut. 2d Eur. reg., on furl. to Eur. for health.
 Harding, E. V., Cadet, prom. to Ens. 16th N. I.—M. Jan. 11.—Removed to 39th N. I., Jan. 25.
 Hewitt, P. C., Cadet, prom. to Cornet 3d L. Cav.—M. Jan. 15.
 Hopkinson, C., Lieut. Col. Artill., rem. from 3d bat. to 1st horse brig.—M. Jan. 12.
 Hays, W. K., Assist. Surg., app. to afford medical aid to troops and followers attached, proceeding to Cannanow.—M. Jan. 25.
 Innes, Alexander, Cornet 3d Light Cav., to be Lieut. v. Briscoe, deceased.—C. Jan. 18.
 Jarvis, J. H., Lieut., Interp. to Artill. at Dum Dum, to be Interp. and Quartm. to 7th batt. of Artill.—C. Jan. 1.
 Jelf, C., Ens., rem. from 7th to 24th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Jenner, H. W. R., Ens., posted to 2d N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
 Jackson, W. B., Ens., 25th N. I., placed at disposal of the Resident at Hyderabad.—M. Jan. 15.
 Jackson, G., Ens. 11th N. I., placed at disposal of the Resident at Hyderabad.—M. Jan. 15.
 Jones, J., Assist.-Surg., jun., rem. from 39th N. I. to 3d Light Cav.—M. Feb. 5.
 Jones, C., Surg., on furl. to Sea for health.—M. Jan. 10.
 James, H., Lieut. 18th N. I., to officiate as Interp. to 2d Light Cav., in absence of Lieut. Otley.—B. Jan. 10.

Jackson, W. H., Lieut., to be Acting Adjut. to Detachment of 2d Extra batt. at Broach.—B. Jan. 17.

Johnstone, Peter, Capt., 5th Beng. N. I., to be 3d Assistant to the Resident at Indore.—C. Jan. 25.

Kennedy, Arch., Ens., posted to 3d N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Kelly, E., Brev. Lieut.-Col., (half-pay,) Command. of Depot for his Majesty's Troops at Chinsurah, to be extra Aid-de-camp on personal Staff of Com.-in-Chief.—C. Jan. 11.

Kelly, Edward, 59th N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—C. Jan. 11.

Lambert, W., Mr., to be 4th Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit for Division of Patna.—C. Jan. 31.

Lowther, W., Mr., to be 4th Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit for Division of Benares.—C. Jan. 31.

Lushington, H., Mr., to be Sub-Secretary to Board of Revenue in Lower Provinces.—C. Jan. 10.

Lindsay, H., Cadet of Cav., to be Cornet.—C. Jan. 11.

Loughnan, J. M., Cadet of Cav., prom. to Cornet.—C. Jan. 18.

Law, J. V., Lieut. 1st N. I., his services placed at the disposal of his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief.—C. Jan. 18.

Lushington, M. L., Cadet of Cav., to be Cornet.—C. Jan. 23.

Lloyd, F., Ens., posted to 19th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Leader, Wm., Cadet, prom. to Ens. 39th N. I.—M. Jan. 11.

Lloyd, Wm., Mr., admitted Assist. Surg., and app. to do duty under Garr.-Surg. of Fort St. George.—M. Jan. 15.

Lushington, R. H., Cornet, posted to 1st Light Cav.—M. Jan. 12.

Lockhart, G., Assist.-Surg., rem. from 23d Light Inf. to 44th N. I.—M. Jan. 12.

Mytten, R. H., Mr., to be an extra Assist. to Registrar of Courts of Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut.—C. Jan. 24.

Mitford, R., Mr., to be senior Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit for Division of Dacca.—C. Jan. 24.

Marten, T. P., Mr., to be Assistant to Magistrate and Collector of Burdware.—C. Jan. 31.

Mackenzie, Colin, Mr., to be Assist. to Magistrate and Collector of Ghazeepeer.—C. Jan. 31.

Macdonald, R. Lieut. 1st Extra N. I., to be an Assist. Revenue Surveyor.—C. Jan. 18.

Mackay, James, Ens. 27th N. I., to be Lieut. v. Glen, deceased.—C. Jan. 23.

M'Combe, Col. H.M.'s 14th Foot, to be a Brigadier, and to command at Berhampore.—C. Jan. 23.

Mulley, P. P. V. V. de Bruyn, Ens., posted to 3d Extra N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Marshall, J. N., Ens., posted to 5th Extra N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Macleod, B. W. Surg., on furl. to Europe.—C. Jan. 18.

Mc Isaac, R., Assist.-Surg., on furl. to Europe for health.—C. Jan. 19.

Mellor, A., Esq., to be Assist. to principal Collector and Magistrate of Madura.—M. Feb. 8.

Millengen, A., Assist.-Surg. app. to Medical Charge of Zillah of Calicut.—M. Jan. 11.

Maughan, H., Ens., rem. from 49th to 21st N. I.—M. Jan. 12.

Mackenzie, C. R. Ens., posted to 16th N. I.—M. Jan. 16.

Moars, T., Ens., posted to 33d N. I.—M. Jan. 18.

Murcott, Capt., Dep. Judge Adv. Gen. to be Dep. Adj. Gen. at Prince of Wales' Island.—M. Jan. 28.

Maule, J. T., Assist.-Surg., permitted to place his services at the disposal of Civ. Commiss. in Tenasserim provinces.—M. Feb. 1.

Macvitie, J. S., Lieut. 9th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Jan. 15.

Moore, J. S., Ens. 51st N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 25.

Morris, J. E., Lieut., to officiate as Adj. at head-quarters of batt. at Surat during absence of Lieut. Jackson.—B. Jan. 21.

- Moyle, J. G., Surg., Med. Storekeeper at Presidency, on furl. to the Cape and Europe for health.—B. Jan. 21.
- Millett, F. M., to be Judge and Maj. of Allahabad.—C. Feb. 7.
- Moore, H. M., to be Judge of Garruckpore.—C. Feb. 7.
- Nisbet, M., Assist.-Surg., directed to join 53d N. I. at Bareilly.—C. Jan. 1.
- Napier, A., Ens., rem. from 8th to 58th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Nisbett, W., Ens., posted to 64th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Ottley, G. O'B., Ens., posted to 6th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- O'Neil, T., Assist.-Surg., posted to 30th N. I.—M. Jan. 26.
- Orr, W. A., 2d Lieut., rem. from 2d Batt. to 2d Brig. Horse Artill.—M. Jan. 24.
- O'Donnoghue, J. J., Capt. 34th N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 22.
- Oakes, G. W., Lieut. 13th N. I., to be Adj. v. Speace on furl.—B. Jan. 22.
- Parker, J. M., Mr., to be Secretary to Board of Customs, Salt, and Opium.—C. Jan. 10.
- Palin, R. W., Ens. 5th N. I., to be Lieut. v. Owen.—C. Jan. 11.
- Paton, J. G. B., Ens., posted to 69th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Pollock, D. T., Ens., posted to 6th Extra N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Pemberton, T. F. H., Ens., posted to 67th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Prole, G. N., Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quar.-Master to 5th N. I. during the indisposition of Lieut. Higge.—C. Jan. 11.
- Pearse, W. G., Lieut.-Col. Artill., rem. from 1st Horse Brig. to 3d Batt.—M. Jan. 12.
- Paterson, A., Ens., posted to 39th N. I.—M. Jan. 12.
- Peppin, A. B., Surg., on furl. to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 22.
- Peat, A., Lieut. Eng., to command corps of Sappers and Miners v. Sleight, on furl.—B. Jan. 17.
- Payne, Lieut. Commiss. Depart. attached to Malwa force, to act for Capt. Campbell, on furl.—B. Jan. 21.
- Paton, Jas., Lieut. Bengal Artill., to be Junior Assist. to the Agent to the Gov.-Gen. in the Saugor and Nerbudda territories.—C. Feb. 8.
- Rattray, Charles, Ensign, posted to 20th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Ravenscroft, E. W., Ensien, posted to 4th Extra N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Ranken, George, Ensign, posted to 1st Extra N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Reid, G., Lieut. 1st Light Cavalry, to be Adjutant, v. Crommelin promoted.—C. Jan. 10.
- Richards, G., Lieut.-Col.-Com. 59th N. I., on furl. to Europe.—C. Jan. 9.
- Redinoud, J. J., Ensign, posted to 7th N. I.—M. Jan. 18.
- Rybol, F. C., Capt. 2d Light Cavalry, to succeed Major Barr as Dep.-Aud.-Gen.—B. Jan. 17.
- Robinson, Thomas, Capt. 64th Bengal N. I., to be Second Assist. to the Resident at Indore.—C. Jan. 25.
- Scott, T. A., Mr., to be Assist. to Magis. and to Coll. of Shahabad.—C. Jan. 24.
- Steer, C. W., Mr., to be Senior Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit for Division of Moorshedabad.—C. Jan. 24.
- Smith, C. W., Mr., to be Judge and Magis. of Zillah of Shalabad.—C. Jan. 31.
- Seymour, R., Capt. 26th N. I., Supernumerary Brigade Major, to be a Deputy-Ass.-Adj.-Gen. on estab. v. Capt. Shuldham prom.—C. Jan. 10.
- Sargent, William, Lieut. 58th N. I., to be Capt. of a Comp. v. Black deceased.—C. Jan. 18.
- Shortreed, P., Ensign 58th N. I., to be Lieut. v. Sargent.—C. Jan. 18.
- Sweettenham, K., Lieut.-Col. Invalid Estab., to command Burdwan Prov. Batt., v. Bird, proceeded to Europe.—C. Jan. 23.
- Samler, Frederick, Ensign, posted to 10th N. I.—C. Jan. 3.
- Spottiswood, R., Major Invalid Estab., on furl. to Europe.—C. Jan. 25.
- Symons, W. J., Lieut. Artill., on furl. to Europe for health.—C. Jan. 25.
- Stuart, James, Major 34th N. I., and Dep.-Sec. to Gov. in Military Department, on furl. to New South Wales for health.—C. Jan. 9.
- Strange, W. R., Lieut. 2d Light Cavalry, placed at disposal of the Resident at Hyderabad.—M. Jan. 15.

Sullivan, B. S., Cornet 4th Light Cavalry, placed at disposal of the Resident at Hyderabad.—M. Jan. 15.

Sargent, H., Capt. 41st N. I., app. to Rifle Corps.—M. Jan. 25.

Scheniman, G. W., Assist.-Surg., on furl. to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 22.

Scott, R., Col. 36th N. I., on furl. to Europe.—M. Jan. 22.

Salmon, W. B., Ensign 19th N. I., on furl. to Calcutta.—B. Jan. 10.

Saunders, J., Capt. 15th N. I., on furl. to Neilgherry Hills for health.—B. Jan. 10.

Sandys, Frederick, H., Capt. 36th Bengal N. I., to be Assist. to the Polit. Agent at Nimar.—C. Jan. 25.

Toone, W. T., Mr., to be Collector of Shahabad.—C. Jan. 10.

Trotter, A., Mr., to be Collector of Behar.—C. Jan. 10.

Turner, V. F. T., Cadet of Cavalry, promoted to Cornet.—C. Jan. 23.

Taylor, Edward, Cadet of Cavalry, to be Cornet.—C. Jan. 23.

Thorold, C., Ensign, rem. from 49th to 61st N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Trafford, W. L., Ensign, posted to 6th Extra N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Towle, C., Lieut. 65th N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—C. Jan. 9.

Toke, J. S., Assist.-Surg., rem. from 43d to 15th N. I.—C. Jan. 11.

Thatcher, H., Ensign, posted to 43d N. I.—M. Jan. 18.

Trall, J., Assist.-Surg., to be Garr. Assist.-Surg. at Seringapatam, v. Pulham, deceased.—M. Feb. 8.

Thomson, G., Assist.-Surg., rem. from 11th to 9th N. I.

Thomson, W., Capt. 17th N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 22.

Turner, H. B., Lieut. Engin., to be Adj. v. Peat, prom.—B. Jan. 17.

Turner, W., Lieut., to act as Quarter-Master to 2d Light Cavalry, in absence of Lieut. Otley.—B. Jan. 17.

Turquand, W. J., Mr., to be Judge and Magis. of Jessore.—C. Feb. 7.

Underwood, W. E., Esq., to be Registrar to Zillah Court of Chugleput.—M. Jan. 15.

Urquhart, A., Lieut. 2d Light Cavalry, on furl. to the Cape for health.—B. Jan. 22.

Woodcock, W. H., Mr., to be Assist. to Magis. and to Coll. of Turhoot.—C. Jan. 21.

Warner, E. Lee, Mr., to be Fourth Judge of Prov. Courts of Appeal and Circuit for Division of Benares.—C. Jan. 31.

Willinson, J. E., Mr., to be Collector of Turhoot.—C. Jan. 10.

Wyatt, J. G., Mr., to be Collector of Suluswan.—C. Jan. 10.

Walker, T., Ens. 1st N. I., to be Lieut., v. Mansfield, deceased.—C. Jan. 18.

Wyatt, J. H., Mr., admitted Assist.-Surgeon.—C. Jan. 23.

Whalley, F. E., Cadet, prom. to Cornet.—C. Jan. 23.

White, M. T., Ensign, posted to 63d N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Warden, W. E., Ensign, posted to 23d N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Wallace, J., Lieut. 23d Light Infantry, to be Post-Mast. to Field Force at Doab, v. Wallace, on furl.—M. Jan. 15.

Watson, T. S., Major Artill., removed from 3d batt. to 2d brigade.—M. Jan. 12.

Whitby, J. C., Ensign, posted to 7th N. I.—M. Jan. 18.

Winbolt, J. H., Capt. 5th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 18.

Wallace, A., Lieut. 38th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 8.

Wright, H., Lieut. 51st N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—M. Jan. 8.

Wilson, G., Lieut., to act as Adjutant to three companies detached from 26th N. I., under command of Major Laing.—B. Jan. 10.

Willis, Lieut.-Col., to succeed Lieut.-Col. Egan in command, in Southern Concan.—B. Jan. 17.

Wena, C. W., Lieut. 13th N. I., to be Adjutant v. Oakes.—B. Jan. 22.

Wilson, G. J., Capt. 23d N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—B. Jan. 21.

Young, T., Ensign, rem. from 40th to 2d N. I.—C. Jan. 3.

Young, P. B., Ensign, posted to 39th N. I.—M. Jan. 12.

BIRTHS.

- Allan, the lady of John, Esq., of a son, at Calcutta, Jan. 17.
 Ayton, the lady of Capt. J., Assist.-Com.-Gen., of a son, at Benares, Jan. 23.
 Bell, the lady of Robert, Esq. of Ramnaghur, of a son, at Berhampore, Jan. 5.
 Brac, the lady of T., Esq., of a daughter, at Calcutta, Jan. 17.
 Bridgnell, the lady of J., Esq., of a son, at Calcutta, Feb. 3.
 Bowes, the lady of Lieut.-Col., of a daughter, at Trichinopoly, Jan. 15.
 Corfield, the lady of Lieut. Joseph, 1st N. I., of a daughter, at Calcutta, Feb. 1.
 Cotton, the lady of Major Sydney, of a still-born child, at Madras, Jan. 18.
 Dorin, the lady of Joseph, Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, at Calcutta, Jan. 31.
 Dickinson, the lady of H., Esq., of a daughter, at Trichinopoly, Jan. 15.
 Fendal, the lady of Major, of a son, at Chowringhee, Feb. 1.
 Guirhard, the lady of C., Esq., at Madras, Jan. 25.
 Grant, the lady of E., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a daughter, at Bombay, Jan. 28.
 Harris, the lady of F. Esq., of a daughter, at Calcutta, Jan. 6.
 Hull, the lady of Capt. J., 8th N. I., of a son, at Banda, Jan. 12.
 Hogg, the lady of J. W., Esq., of a daughter, at Calcutta, Jan. 16.
 Hitchins, the lady of Major, Dep.-Adj.-Gen. of the Army, of a son, at Madras, Feb. 4.
 Johnstone, the lady of J. Esq., (M. D.) 2d Nusseeree Batt., of a son, at Bareilly, Jan. 7.
 Kemp, the lady of A. D., Esq., of a son, at Calcutta, Jan. 14.
 Lee, the lady of Lieut. H., 11th N. I., of a daughter, at Madras, Jan. 16.
 Macpherson, the lady of the Rev. A., of a son, at Dum Dum, Jan. 23.
 Morris, the lady of J. C., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a daughter, at Clung, Jan. 19.
 Oman, the lady of C., Esq., of a son, at Calcutta, Jan. 22.
 Parlbv, the lady of Lieut.-Col. 29th N. I., of a daughter, at Serunderabad, Jan. 26.
 Ridge, the lady of Chas., Esq., of a daughter, at Dinapore, Jan. 21.
 Saunders, the lady of R., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a son, at Calcutta, Jan. 28.
 Spring, F., the lady of the Rev., at Zurlon, Madras, Jan. 26.
 Sopitt, the lady of Capt., 26th Reg., of a daughter, at Ahmednuggur, Jan. 10.
 Sykes, the lady of Major W. H., of a son, in camp, near Sholapore, Jan. 11.
 Turner, the lady of C., Lieut., 35th Madras Volunteers, of a son, at Calcutta, Jan. 2.
 Taylor, the lady of Capt. J., Assist. Com.-Gen., of a son, at Benares, Jan. 22.
 Thomas, the lady of G. H., Esq., 7th Light Cav., and Sub. Assist. Com. Gen., of a son, at Sholapore, Jan. 3.
 Warden, the lady of John, Esq., of a son, at Poonah, Jan. 5.

MARRIAGES.

- Barnard, W. S., Esq., to Eliza, third daughter of the late Major Boscawen, Bengal Army, at Calcutta, Jan. 14.
 Canham, Geo., Esq., of Purnea, to Miss H. M. Henderson, of Camberwell, at Calcutta, Jan. 14.
 Dickson, F., Esq., Paymaster to his Majesty's 41st Regt., to Margaret, only daughter of the late W. A. H. Bainbridge, Esq., of Calcutta, at Madras, Feb. 9.
 D'Fries, A., Esq., to Miss E. Johnston, at Madras, Feb. 18.
 Mottett, Capt. E. H. H., the Nizam's Serv., to Georgiana Honoria, youngest daughter of the late E. W. Fallofield, Esq., Madras Civ. Serv., at Pondicherry, Feb. 4.
 Palmer, Geo., Esq., to Miss Anne Elizabeth Cauty, at Calcutta, Jan. 26.
 Robertson, Capt. H. D., to Miss J. V. Dunlop, at Poonah, Jan. 31.
 Stocqueler, J. H., Esq., to Miss Spencer, at Bombay, Feb. 4.
 Shuttleworth, D. E., Esq., late of the ship *Cambridge*, to Elizabeth, second daughter of George Inglis, Esq., of Silket, at Calcutta, Jan. 10.
 Savi, Thomas, Esq., to Miss Eliza C. de Verlune, Jan. 29.
 Urquhart, W. H., Esq., to Miss A. Smith, daughter of the late W. Smith, Esq., of Howrah, at Calcutta, Feb. 2.

DEATHS.

- Alexander, F., Esq., aged 33, at Royapettah, Calcutta, Feb. 16.
 • Brae, Mrs., wife of Thomas Brae, Esq., at Calcutta, Jan. 16.
 Barber, Dr. M., Surgeon of the ship *Nande*, of Liverpool, at Calcutta, Jan. 23.
 Brown, Murdoch, Esq., of Anjarahandy, aged 75, at Tellicherry, Jan. 9.
 Christian, the widow of the late Rev. Thomas, at Bauglepor, Jan. 11.
 Cooke, Henry, Esq., aged 59, Calcutta, Jan. 22.
 Coyle, Jane, wife of Capt. H., 28th N. I., near Salem, Feb. 5.
 Gardner, W. D. F., Lieut. 2d Brig. Horse Artill, aged 20, at Bolarum, Jan. 12.
 Harris, Henry, Esq., Assist. Civ. Surg., at Dacca, Jan. 10.
 Howard, E. J., daughter of Lieut., 1st European reg., aged 5 years, at Agra, Jan. 11.
 Kitchener, Capt. Daniel, aged 32, at Calcutta, Jan. 16.
 Loder, Joseph W. Sandby, only son of Major J. W., aged 2 years, at Keitah, Jan. 10.
 Logie, Wm., Lieut.-Col., Com. 34th N. I., at Saugor, Jan. 13.
 Murrell, B., Ens., on his way to the Upper Provinces, Calcutta, Jan. 7.
 Pullham, Mr., Assist.-Surg., at Seringapatam, Jan. 17.
 Place, Lieut.-Col. Robert, Com. his Majesty's 41st reg., at Vingoria, Feb. 2.
 Reynolds, Wm., Lieut. 12th N. I., aged 28, at Bombay, Jan. 16.
 Spence, S. C., Adjutant 13th N. I., at Bombay, Jan. 16.

SHIPPING INTELLIGENCE.

ARRIVALS FROM EASTERN PORTS.

Date.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Place of Depart.	Date.
1828.					1827-8.
June 28	Cowes ..	Merrimac ..	Smith ..	Batavia ..	Feb. 8
June 30	Liverpool ..	Wm. Young ..	Morrison ..	— ..	Jan. 18
July 1	Portland ..	Harriet ..	Buisman ..	Sourabaya ..	—
July 3	Portsmouth	Robarts ..	Corbyn ..	Bengal ..	Jan. 30
July 4	Portsmouth	Parmelia ..	Wimble ..	Bengal ..	Jan. 22
July 4	Portsmouth	Hero of Malewn	Staddart ..	Singapore	Feb. 2
July 4	Scilly ..	Mary Ann ..	Bauraut ..	Mauritius	—
July 9	Portsmouth	Ferguson ..	Groves ..	Bengal ..	Dec. 8
July 9	Portland ..	Henry Porcher	Jeffery ..	Bengal ..	Jan. 19
July 9	Brixham ..	Ann Hope ..	Esdale ..	China ..	Mar. 17
July 9	Brighton ..	Lady of the Lake	Nicholls ..	Ceylon ..	Feb. 28
July 12	Weymouth	Warren Hastings	Mason ..	Bengal ..	Feb. 13
July 12	Brighton ..	Neptune ..	Camberledge	Bengal ..	Feb. 12
July 12	Downs ..	Baretto, jun. ..	Shannon ..	Bengal ..	Feb. 16
July 12	Portsmouth	Jessie ..	Winter ..	Cape ..	Apr. 30
July 14	Downs ..	Orient ..	White ..	Bengal ..	Mar. 7
July 14	Downs ..	Admiral Byskes	Duncan ..	Batavia ..	Mar. 12
July 14	Downs ..	Gilmore ..	Laws ..	Mauritius	Mar. 12
July 14	Portsmouth	Owen Glendowr	Christian ..	Cape ..	May 13
July 15	Downs ..	Arethusa ..	Johnson ..	Singapore	Feb. 19
July 15	Downs ..	Pero ..	Rutter ..	Cape ..	Apr. 30
July 15	Isle of Wight	Palmyra ..	Lamb ..	Bengal ..	Feb. 17
July 15	Liverpool ..	Grecian ..	Allen ..	Bombay ..	Mar. 7
July 16	Downs ..	Britannia ..	Ferris ..	Bombay ..	Feb. 4
July 16	Cowes ..	Champion ..	Lock ..	Batavia ..	Feb. 15
July 16	Downs ..	Elizabeth ..	Tait ..	South Seas	—
July 17	Liverpool ..	Ganges ..	Jefferson ..	Bengal ..	Feb.
July 17	Downs ..	Charles ..	Butcher ..	South Seas	—
July 23	Portsmouth	Herald ..	Astley ..	Bengal ..	Mar. 8
July 24	Folkstone ..	Orelia ..	Hudson ..	N. S. Wales	Mar. 9

ARRIVALS IN EASTERN PORTS.

Date.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Port of Depart.
1828.				
Jan. 9	N. S. Wales ..	Hind ..	Rodney ..	Glasgow
Jan. 13	N. S. Wales ..	North Briton ..	Morrison ..	Greenock
Jan. 27	N. S. Wales ..	Albion ..	Proctor ..	London
Feb. 11	Singapore ..	Mary Ann ..	Spottiswood ..	London
Feb. 12	Bombay ..	Lady Faversham ..	Alder ..	London
Feb. 22	Madras ..	Copernicus ..	Stevens ..	London
Feb. 25	N. S. Wales ..	Hooghley ..	Reeves ..	London
Feb. 25	China ..	Globe ..	Salmon ..	Liverpool
Feb. 27	Madras ..	Mary Ann ..	O'Brien ..	London
Feb. 29	Liverpool ..	Princess Charlotte ..	— ..	Bengal
March 1	N. S. Wales ..	Courier ..	Finnis ..	London
March 2	N. S. Wales ..	Greenock ..	Miller ..	Leith
March 3	N. S. Wales ..	Morely ..	Williams ..	Dublin

DEPARTURES FROM EUROPE.

Date.	Port of Depart.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Destination.
1828.				
June 27	Gravesend ..	Thalia ..	Biden ..	Mad. & Beng.
June 29	Gravesend ..	Broxbornebury ..	Chapman ..	Bengal
June 30	Gravesend ..	Elizabeth ..	Brown ..	Sing. & Penang
June 30	Gravesend ..	Cormandell ..	Boyes ..	Cey. & Beng.
June 30	Liverpool ..	Welcome ..	Buchanan ..	Mauritius
July 1	Gravesend ..	Coldstream ..	Miller ..	Cape & Beng.
July 5	Liverpool ..	Gipsy ..	Henderson ..	Bengal
July 6	Gravesend ..	Sophia ..	Dawson ..	Bengal
July 6	Gravesend ..	Recovery ..	Chapman ..	Bombay
July 6	Gravesend ..	Diadem ..	Wilson ..	V. D. Land
July 7	Liverpool ..	Mary ..	Lacock ..	N. S. Wales
July 7	Greenock ..	Joanna ..	M'Kellar ..	Mauritius
July 7	Downs ..	Mary ..	Shuttleworth ..	V. D. Land
July 9	Gravesend ..	Mulgrave ..	Turner ..	Mauritius
July 9	Gravesend ..	Cæsar ..	Watt ..	Bengal
July 13	Gravesend ..	Lavinia ..	Brookes ..	Cape
July 13	Gravesend ..	Dublin ..	Stewart ..	Bombay
July 17	Gravesend ..	Ellen ..	Camper ..	Mauritius
July 17	Liverpool ..	Gypsey ..	Quick ..	Bombay
July 20	Downs ..	Sunbury ..	Pattison ..	Mauritius
July 21	Gravesend ..	Indian ..	Eadie ..	Singapore
July 21	Gravesend ..	Lady Flora ..	Fayrer ..	Bengal
July 21	Gravesend ..	Kath. St. Forbes ..	Chapman ..	Bombay
July 22	Gravesend ..	Earl of Egremont ..	Johnson ..	Cape
July 24	Gravesend ..	Timandra ..	Wray ..	V. D. Land

GENERAL LIST OF PASSENGERS.

PASSENGERS HOMEWARDS.

By the *Britannia*, from Bombay :—Captains Addison and C. F. Pelly, Bombay Establishment.

By the *Orelia*, from New South Wales :—Lieutenants Christie, 3d Foot, and R. Macdonald; Doctors C. Cameron, William Macdonald; Messrs. Redford and Morrison, and Ward and Wife; forty-nine invalids, nineteen women, and forty children.

By the *Gilmore*, from the Mauritius :—Lieutenant Hawthorn, 29th Foot, (died off the Cape); Rev. Mr. Perring; Mesdames Lawes and Perring; Masters Wicke and Campbell.

By the *Palmyra*, from Bengal :—Majors Baillie, 38th Foot, and Spottiswood, Invalid Establishment; Captain Pecket, Bengal, Europe; Lieutenant Windus, 11th Dragoons; Rev. Richard Mytton; Francis Hall, James Spottiswood, and J. P. Jones, Esqs.; Masters Prinsep, F. Smith, A. Swinton, and Dunlop; Mesdames Prinsep and Mytton; Misses Mytton, Lewis, Dunlop, and Swinton; eight servants, and fifty-one invalids.

By the *Neptune*, from Bengal :—Lieutenant King, Ensign Maule; Dr. Morgan, (died at Ingeram); Henry Middleton, John Fraser, Charles Weston, and George Ogilvy, Esqs.; Mr. Falconer; Masters Richardson and Theobald; Mesdames Mitford and Morgan; Misses Scracie and Pattle.

By the *Admiral Bayskes*, from Batavia :—Captain Macdonnell, Mr. Spencer; Masters Ingram and Baumhaure; Mesdames Duncan and Cruseman, and child.

By the *Orient*, from Bengal :—Lieut.-Col. J. L. Harriott; Captain G. Mackenzie, 15th Bengal N. I.; Lieut. H. Macintosh, 43d Bengal N. I.; Dr. N. Wallick, (M.D.), Superintendent of Hon. Company's Botanical Garden; G. Ballard, Esq.; Mr. F. W. Durand; Mesdames H. Cavell, (died at sea on 9th June); Clarke, Abel, and Durand; Masters H. F. Cavell, Durand, and Watson; three servants, and forty invalids.

By the *Bavetto, jun.*, from Madras :—Lieut. A. H. Hall; Dr. Peppin; Mesdames Peppin and Atkinson, and three children.

By the *Jessie*, from the Cape :—Dr. Wehr and Wife; Mr. and Mrs. Hiedeman and child; Mesdames Wehr, Hall, Trutter, Dryers, J. Dryers, and Albertus and son.

By the *Warren Hastings*, from Bengal :—General Richards; R. C. Blunt, W. L. Graves, George Watson (died at sea), Esqs.; Mr. Charles Haynes, Assistant-Surgeon, an insane patient; Mesdames Richards and Blunt; Miss Julia Richards; Maria Brown, servant, (committed suicide off St. Helena.)

By the *Roberts*, from Bengal :—Major-General Sir Thomas Reynell, K.C.B., 71st Foot; Colonels Day, 51st regiment, and Kennett, 37th regiment; Majors Denty, 53d regiment, and Meade, 89th Foot; Lieutenants Budd, 14th Foot, Johnson, 11th Dragoons, and W. N. Tillard; Drs. MacIsaac, B. M. S., and Harcourt, 11th Dragoons; John Heyes, W. P. Muston, Daniel de Castro Fernandez, John Beecher, John Rawlins, H. L. Bowles, and John Cooper, Esqs.; Masters G. P. Muir, John Heyes, C. H. Rawlins, Frederick Slark, John Beecher, and William Day; Mesdames Mouatt, W. P. Muston, Major Denty, John Beecher, Major Taylor, and Rawlins; Misses A. M. Davis, L. Denty, L. Godfrey, Taylor, J. E. Slack, C. O. Dell Beecher, A. Beauchamp, E. Currie, Mustons, M. Irving, and Harcourts; twelve servants.

By the *Parmelia*, from Bengal and Madras :—Lieut.-Colonel Moore, (died at sea, 28th March); Lieutenant Fife; Messrs. J. Macintosh, Feband, and Close; Masters W. Macintosh, J. Macintosh, R. Macintosh, and W. Kempland; Mesdames J. F. Ellerton, Colonel Crooke, and J. Macintosh; Misses M. C. and E. M. Ellerton, Macintosh, and Hooper.

POSTSCRIPT.

We kept our sheets open to the latest moment in expectation of receiving some late and interesting intelligence from India; but, though we have Papers to the 7th of March, we find nothing in them of general interest beyond the portions we have extracted and printed under separate heads. In England, the only event that has occurred connected with Indian persons or affairs, is the arrival of Lord Amherst, or the Earl of Arracan, who appears to have entered this country as quietly as he quitted that from whence he has come.

THE ORIENTAL HERALD.

No. 57.—SEPTEMBER, 1828.—VOL. 18.

FOREIGN TRADE—AMERICAN TARIFF—EAST INDIA MONOPOLY.

IN no country in the world has commercial legislation been conducted on a system of such perverse impolicy as with us. Possessing, as we do, above all other nations, the means of verifying the lessons of theory, by reference to the unimpeachable testimony of fact, having within our reach, in the shape of official returns, a mass of information, which, if honestly consulted and wisely applied, would lead to just conclusions on all questions of mercantile expediency, we have, until lately, regardless of all principle and all experience, pursued a miserable course of restrictive policy, the adoption of which, while it suited us for a time, we have now surpassing reason to deplore. Could the men of power and influence among us have prevailed on those whose individual interests might have been compromised by the change, to abandon the system of prohibitory enactment, when it ceased to be conducive to the general interests of the country, or could foreign nations have been persuaded to copy our repentance with as much facility as they were induced to imitate our errors,—the statesmen of the present day would not have much reason to regret the improvidence of their predecessors. But, bound as they are, hand and foot, by the mistaken policy which foreign Governments have adopted on our authority, by establishments which our example first taught them to institute and compelled them to support,—by inconsiderate engagements with, and exclusive monopolies granted to, our own subjects,—now that the necessity of retracing our steps is acknowledged, they find that every scheme of amelioration is thwarted and defeated by checks and impediments, which no sagacity can evade, and no wisdom remove. Men, ‘rocked and dandled into legislators,’ knowing nothing of the business of life but what they may have seen from the windows of a drawing-room, have, during the last thirty years, been permitted

to amuse themselves with the vital interests of this country, as if they were the mere toys of lords and gentlemen, to be dissipated and squandered at pleasure. The effect of this preferment, by 'letter and affection,' has been, that, while the Cannings and the Huskissons have been plodding all their lives in subordinate employments, without influence to direct, or credit to suggest, the changes which the varying circumstances of the world required,—men without capacity to conceive, or honesty to pursue, useful innovation, have been enabled to divert all the channels of national wealth, and block up all the outlets of national industry. At every step we take in the career of utility, some fiscal exigency, some privileged Company, some vested right, arrests our progress;—we have reduced ourselves to a state of such infantine imbecility, by the fetters we have forged, and the limits which we have prescribed to ourselves, that every little freak of every little state alarms and dismays us; and, though we are convinced, by unerring demonstration, of the wisdom of emancipating our commerce from all restraint, even in our improvements we adhere to that paltry system of petty expediency, that mean consultation of partial interests, which discredits the sincerity of our liberal professions, and warns other nations to beware of trickery and deception. We have, indeed, found to our cost, that it is much less easy to eradicate bad habits than to form them. Our old navigation laws were copied by almost all the maritime countries of Europe; our charters had their miniatures too; bounties and protecting duties were instituted on our authority; and the whole world, envying the prosperity, adopted the policy of England. But now that it no longer suits us to practise the lessons we once so sedulously taught, we discover a strange indocility in our former pupils, and we are compelled either to wait their humour, or be forced back on our old system, under the name of Retaliation.

These general remarks on the late and present policy of England have been suggested by a speech on the American Tariff, pronounced by Mr. Huskisson on the 19th July. To a person unacquainted with the real merits of the question between this country and the United States, it would appear, from that speech, 1. That the new duties had been suggested in a spirit of pure jealousy, or wanton hostility, to England; and 2. That a total cessation of commercial intercourse between this country and the United States, would be productive of serious injury to them, and of no inconvenience to us.

When a statesman of Mr. Huskisson's character and authority declares a deliberate opinion on a subject in which he is known to be intimately versed, the smallest error, the slightest deviation from strict truth, either in colouring or design, may be productive of infinite mischief. The object of this article is to show, that, throughout the statement of the right honourable Gentleman, the

circumstances of this country are represented as they ought, and might, and would be, if the right honourable Gentleman's power were commensurate with his wishes, but as in fact they never can be, until an inroad is made into what are considered by some persons sacred rights, or until a serious change takes place in the disposition of those to whose illiberal prejudices he is himself a victim, and to whose hands the destinies of this country seem now irretrievably committed. If Mr. Huskisson had said all he thought, and all he knew, upon the subject of the American Tariff, had each member of his speech been dilated by fair and legitimate illustration, and the true cause assigned for all he had occasion to lament,—instead of being an unjust reproach on the measures of Congress, it would have embodied a severe and disgraceful exposure of that selfish system of partial legislation, which the Ministers of this country are compelled to execute by their masters and ours.

In Great Britain two-thirds of the population are supposed to be employed in commerce and manufactures ; in the United States two-thirds at least, besides their slaves, are dependent on agriculture. Now it is perfectly true, as stated by Mr. Huskisson, that, in the year 1818, the Government of the United States entered into a convention with the British Cabinet, the object of which was the reciprocal admission, by each country, of the produce, trade, and manufacture of the other, on the payment of duties as low as were paid on the same articles by any other country ; that, in 1823, and the three following years, a strong disposition was evinced in Congress to depart from the principle of that convention, and that, in one instance, duties were imposed in direct contravention of its provisions ; but that there was any thing strange, irrational, or unaccountable in the conduct of the United States in that particular, or that the determination on which they have since acted, was suggested by inconsiderate malevolence, is not consistent with the fact. Until the year 1823, the policy of the United States is correctly represented by Mr. Huskisson to have been, to raise no more revenue by duties on importation than were necessary to maintain the charges incident to, and to provide for the exigencies of, the state. No doubt such a course was sound and wise ; and, if there had been any disposition to meet it on our part by corresponding wisdom, the convention of 1818 might still have existed, to the mutual benefit of both countries. But the truth is, that, soon after the ratification of the treaty in question, the Americans perceived that there was more of show than of substance in the liberality of England,—that, whatever might be the opinions of the Minister by whom the convention was negotiated, he was but feebly and partially supported by his Cabinet. They learnt from the debates in Parliament, that there existed an absolute controlling power which thwarted all his schemes, and an ignorant prejudice among the people which marred every project of improvement. A closer inspection of the terms of the treaty,

facilitated by the commentary which two years' experience of its practical operation afforded, demonstrated that the advantages for which they imagined they had stipulated, were perfectly illusory, that the produce of the other countries with which an equality had been guaranteed to them by the treaty, was rigidly excluded from our ports, and that in fact, while in the markets of the Union there was a complete glut of British commodities, the export of their raw produce exhibited a progressive decrease, except in those articles which were returned to them in the shape of manufactured goods. In the mean time, new lands were annually brought into cultivation, improved processes of agriculture were introduced, and a very considerable increase of population had taken place, for the produce of whose industry no market could be found.

Of the truth of this outline of the relative advantages to England and America of the treaty of 1818, any person conversant with the general theory of trade, or with the details of this particular branch of it, may be convinced, by recollecting, that, during the whole time of its operation, American bills in London were at a premium varying from 7 to 12 per cent., a fact of itself sufficient to prove that no fair equivalent was given by us for the advantages which we obtained. But that the object contemplated by the American Legislature may be fairly understood, and not estimated by the ingenious but uncandid statement of Mr. Huskisson, it may be well to submit to the reader the grounds suggested in a report presented by Mr. Clay, chairman of the Committee appointed to examine the Bill of 1824, which was the first legislative departure from the treaty of 1818. In that Report the Committee observed, that, in the year ending on the 30th of September, 1796, the value of the exports of the United States amounted to 40,764,097 dollars; that since that time the population had increased in the proportion of 4 per cent. per annum; and that, supposing the augmentation of the produce of the country to be in a corresponding ratio, the value of exports in the year ending on the 30th September, 1823, ought to have been 85,420,861 dollars, while, in fact, it was only 47,155,408 dollars. This state of things was the more regretted by the Committee, because the countries with which the relations of America were most extensive, had considerably increased in wealth and population, circumstances which would naturally have induced an increased consumption of the produce of American agriculture, had it not, with the exception of those articles which could be obtained no where else, been rigidly excluded from our ports. The condition of America, in a state of improved and extended cultivation, might be imagined by a comparison of the quantities of agricultural produce exported in the years :

	1803	1823
Barrels of Flour...	1,311,853	756,702
Bushels of Maize..	2,074,608	749,034
Barrels of Beef...	77,903	61,418
— of Pork...	99,602	55,529

The decrease of exports was so considerable, that of a sum of 47,155,408 dollars, above stated to have been the total value of exports in 1823, 28,549,177 dollars were the money representatives of these articles alone, cotton, rice, and tobacco, of the exports of which the value in that year was :

Cotton.....	20,445,520 dollars.
Rice.....	1,820,985
Tobacco.....	6,282,672

28,549,177.

The Report concludes from the absolute prohibition on all other articles, that the cotton, rice, and tobacco are only in demand because they cannot be conveniently got any where else, and as, therefore, under the existing 'Tariffs' of other nations, there is no opportunity of disposing of the surplus produce of the States, it recommends to Congress to create a market at home, by diverting a portion of the capital and population of the country from agricultural to manufacturing pursuits, that less of raw produce may be raised, and the States be less dependent on the markets or manufactures of other nations.

It appears from this statement, that, however unwise or impolitic the imposition of new duties may have been, it was not conceived in a spirit of hostility to this or any other country, but was rather one of those measures of necessary retaliation to which even Mr. Huskisson seems to think it incumbent on Governments sometimes to resort. There certainly was a considerable difference of opinion as to the wisdom of this first step in the career of prohibition. Mr. Webster, a distinguished member of Congress, among others, opposed it with much zeal and eloquence, but not on the grounds which Mr. Huskisson would leave us to infer. Mr. Webster's objection to the measure originated in his dislike (somewhat primitive to be sure) of manufacturing establishments, the employment in which, as compared with the labours of the field, he considered a great source of misery to the poor. But, as to the real merits of the question, there was comparatively but little doubt, almost all parties considering that the convention of 1818 was productive of no substantial advantage to America.

To say the truth, if the effects of this change in the counsels of Congress had not already occasioned an inconvenience to our manufacturing interests, the increase of which the new Tariff affords much reason to apprehend, there would be something inexpressibly amusing in the tone of affected non-chalance, with which Mr. Huskisson lectures our American correspondents. One would imagine, that, in his opinion, Government ought to be well pleased at the opportunity now afforded to read a useful lesson to a froward and impertinent Republic; that the time had happily arrived to assert the dignity of England; that Ministers ought not lightly

to incline to lenity or forgiveness ; and that, unless symptoms of repentance be speedily manifested, the promoters of this ill-advised scheme should be made to feel the consequences of their imprudence. The whole speech is conceived in a tone of parental severity, perfectly ludicrous to all those who, acquainted with the relative conditions of the two countries, are aware of the power which America possesses to vex and annoy us. 'What care we,' says Mr. Huskisson, 'for the friendship of America? If the intercourse ceased to-morrow, the loss to us would be inconsiderable, while the trade of our rivals would be diminished one half. Besides, we take nothing from America, but cotton, and rice, and turpentine, and tobacco, all of which can be obtained much better and much cheaper from our Asiatic possessions. The direct trade to India is in its infancy,—the Celestial Empire invites the enterprise of our merchants,—the Eastern Archipelago is unexplored :—compare these inexhaustible laboratories of wealth with the "little speck" in the Western Ocean, and we may laugh heartily at this presumptuous arrogance of young pretension.'

Either Mr. Huskisson takes an ill measure of the commercial power of the United States, or his theories are built upon prospects and anticipations which, however wise and enlightened, are still far from being realised. If he think to impose upon the credulity of the Americans by this vain assumption of supremacy in the markets in the East, he must have wilfully shut his eyes to the fact, that, by our suicidal restrictions on our own intercourse with those regions, we have raised the trade of this infant people to an importance resting on a basis too firm to be easily shaken by any competition,—a state of growing promise and prosperity, which, in all probability, was not excluded from the calculations of Congress in determining on the new Tariff. It is impossible that Mr. Huskisson should really feel that confidence of strength which he endeavours to inspire,—he cannot have so soon forgotten the contract with Howqua, of the Chinese Hong, and the sales at Kiatka, to doubt that, with ordinary success in the manufacture, markets will not be wanting for the produce of the new looms, or that American cotton may be disposed of elsewhere than in England. It is the habit of men of large and comprehensive intelligence, to take extensive views of the interests of their country : they survey its complicated relations from an eminence unattainable to minds of ordinary stature. Where the prospect is intercepted by clouds or hills, their knowledge of the strata of national industry, and the streams of national wealth, enables them to fill up the outline with unerring precision ; and, if their desire of improvement be restrained by the salutary curb of official responsibility, this facility of contemplating all things as they ought to be, without hindrance or obstruction, seldom misleads them to forgetfulness of things as they are. But, when emancipated from the check of practical difficulty

and the daily necessity of prudential calculation, their imagination, in the wanton enjoyment of its new liberty, easily outstrips their judgment; brilliant dreams of prosperity occupy their thoughts, all impediments vanish from before them, they anticipate, with little scruple, resources sufficiently precarious, and assume, in childish weakness, the air and consequence of resistless strength.

Thus it is with the late Secretary of the Colonies: leaving to Sir George Murray all the cares and anxieties of his office, he has brought nothing away but a beautiful sketch of projected improvements, in which exclusive charters, protecting duties, alien laws, prohibitions and monopolies are not noted, because it was his wise and enlightened policy, ere the drawing was completed, to abolish them all. Let us hope that those on whom the mantle of the Right Hon. Gentleman has fallen, may pursue with eagerness the path which he has traced, but not in the mean time forget that the country forebodes in his disgrace the abandonment of his system, that his policy is already more frequently the theme of apology than of applause, and that, if those who are most interested in the event do not learn wisdom from such warnings as this new Tariff conveys, they may find themselves in a miserable minority when the grand contest between Monopoly and Free Trade takes place. In the mean time, the injury inflicted upon us by the policy of America, is not to be so lightly estimated, or so easily repaired, as Mr. Huskisson would have us to believe. By a long course of infatuated measures, and by the supposed necessity of adhering to improvident compacts with men who insist upon the letter of their bond, we are disabled from using the cheap defence against the prohibitions of Congress which is now suggested in such tantalizing forms. On us the effect of the American Tariff is immediate: their manufactures are already in activity; their comparative exemption from taxation, the lowness of their freights, the possession of the raw material, their opportunities of access to all the nations of the earth, the thrifty system of repeated barter which their shrewd adventurers practise, will compensate for the inferiority of their earlier fabrics, and justify a rational expectation that the intended diversion of some part of their capital from agriculture to commerce will meet with sufficient encouragement.

Unless the Government of England proclaim at once the incompetence of their predecessors to fetter the discretion of Parliament, by a bond which, not enriching those obliged, has made the obligers poor indeed,—these adventurous carriers bid fair to pre-occupy the markets of Asia, as by the combined operation of their own neutrality, our navigation laws, and our East India Company, they heretofore did the markets of Europe. For this serious and impending evil, the ingenuity of Mr. Huskisson can suggest no preventative, of which the net of monopoly and restriction by which

the energies of this country are crippled and embarrassed, does not prevent the adoption. The only injury which the refusal of our woollens or our cottons can attach to the people of the United States, is the necessity of using, for a time, dearer, and perhaps coarser goods. They know very well, that we shall pause before we exclude their rice, their raw cotton, and their tobacco, from our markets; they are apprised of the extent to which the industry of this country is cramped by the absurdity of her own regulations and the folly of her inconsiderate engagements; and Mr. Huskisson knows it too. It is this knowledge that infused that spirit of peevish vexation into the speech of the 19th July, those tremulous accents of defiance which discredited the loud confidence he occasionally endeavoured to assume. It was a speech pregnant with irony and innuendo, the satirical effusion of a man labouring hard to conceal from foreigners the actual state of the country, and the scorn and contempt which he entertains for the ignorant effrontery of its hereditary and corporate Lords.

The threat of obtaining rice, cotton, and tobacco from India, will appear to America an idle boast; and it is so in fact. As long as the free settlement and colonisation of India by Europeans is resisted by the Company, under the sanction of Parliament, so long shall we have reason to regret the American Tariff. At present, the produce of India, with the single exception of indigo, is vastly inferior to that of America. 'It is in vain,' says the able author of '*The Present State and Future Prospects of Free Trade and Colonisation in India*,' 'to expect that either the agriculture or trade to India can ever become of the vastness and importance of which they are both susceptible, until improved and extended by the unlimited and unshackled application of British capital and intelligence. In respect to agriculture especially, the free settlement of Englishmen is loudly called for, as a measure, not only of expediency, but of real necessity. The whole productions of Indian husbandry, that are abandoned to the exclusive management of the Natives, through the restraints and penalties of the monopoly, are inferior to the similar productions of every other tropical country; they are not only inferior to the productions of British colonial industry, but to those of French, Dutch, Spanish, even to those of Portuguese industry: they are, in every case, also inferior to the corresponding productions of Chinese industry. To what is this to be ascribed, but to the slovenliness and ignorance of a semi-barbarous people? The whole is a mere affair of civilisation; and, in so far as the **Hindoos** are inferior to Europeans and Chinese in real skill and intelligence, so must be the productions of their agricultural, their manufacturing, or their any other kind of useful industry.'

The same author says in a subsequent part of his work, '*The indigenous products of India have been transferred to America, and*

there, under the direction of European skill, they far surpass in goodness and quantity those of their original country : witness the sugar-cane, the cotton plant, coffee, rice, and even indigo, until, in its native country, the production of this last fell into the hands of Europeans. Have the Indians retaliated upon the American colonists ? Where is our Indian annatto, our Indian cocoa, our Indian vanilla ? Indian cochineal is of about one-sixth part the value of that of Mexico. Indian tobacco is certainly not of one-third the value, in any case, of the produce of Virginia, Maryland, or Cuba.'

These extracts from an authority 'above all exception,' are abundantly sufficient to prove the emptiness of the menace of retaliation, by which Mr. Huskisson would fondly hope to stagger the recent resolution of Congress. That resolution, however, was not adopted under circumstances which encourage the prospect of its speedy abandonment. It was founded on the knowledge which they had acquired in extensive dealings with the East, that the produce of the Company's dominions was infinitely superior to that raised in their own territory ; that, if we, in a temper of vindictive imprudence, attempted to force the tobacco or the rice of India on our home consumption, we should be the first to suffer by the change ; that, if we compelled Manchester and Glasgow to substitute Indian cotton wool for that of American culture, the immediate deterioration of their manufactures would cause us to repent of the foolish experiment. Before we think of enforcing this *lex talionis*, we should weigh well the value of the friendship thus destroyed, the means of annoyance possessed by those whom we propose to force into open hostility, the provocation we have ourselves given to the measures we deplore, and, finally, the numberless restrictions which prevent us from entering on the exemplary career of punishment suggested for our adoption.

The superiority of the produce of India to that of America, is not, we admit, to be ascribed to any corresponding inaptitude of soil or climate. We freely acknowledge, with Mr. Huskisson, that, if the resources of that exuberantly fertile country were fairly thrown open to the skill, enterprise, and capital of British traders, some districts of India might as successfully compete in the growth of cotton and tobacco with Carolina and Virginia, as Bengal already does in indigo with Guatemala. But, when we consider how little approach can be made to this most desirable state of things, during the continuance of the charter, without the concurrence of the East India Company, and the churlish negative which has been always put by that incubus on the energies of the country, on all projects of liberal concession, however innocuous to them, or beneficial to the people of England, we confess ourselves unable to contemplate the vaunted alternative of Mr. Huskisson with that complacency and satisfaction with which he seems to regard it. If the prudish

respect for national faith be permitted to prevail, if there be no relief in legislative equity from an obligation contracted in credulous reliance on suborned and covenanted witnesses, we are, for some time to come, at the mercy of Congress. Five years must elapse before the first step towards the projected improvement of Indian productions can be made: if five years more suffice to raise the wild weeds of India to an equality with the plants of the American garden, little time will have been lost, and much skill displayed; but, while the slow process of forming a new society, erecting new establishments, producing new plans of cultivation, and new modes of life, goes on, our artisans may want for bread, our manufactures will be undersold at Canton and Batavia, Howqua may receive his consignments from America direct; and, when the embarrassments of restrictive laws and exclusive charters shall be removed, our merchants may find that they have lost the tide which, taken at its flood, might have led to the full reality of Adam Smith's prognostications. To prevent this bitter disappointment, to preserve those rich fields of European enterprise for the capital and skill of his countrymen, instead of instigating Government to measures of angry retaliation, Mr. Huskisson should employ the stores of his capacious mind in demolishing the two grand bulwarks of monopoly, one of which is the real cause of the new Tariff, the other the source of our pitiable and notorious dependence.

Had we not, in ignorant jealousy of the growth of other countries, foolishly and inconsiderately forced our mountains and our moors to supply a harvest which they grudged, America would have had no inducement to recede from the convention of 1818. Built, as our prosperity is, on the credit of our merchants, the skill of our people, and the excellence of our machinery, it would suit us well, no doubt, to supply hardware and clothing to the farmers of our ancient colony; but, if we refuse to take the produce of their industry in exchange, and compel them, year after year, to discharge, with coin or with bullion, their debts to us, they are much too keen not to perceive that our boasted system of reciprocity is a selfish contrivance to seduce them into a losing and ruinous trade. If, therefore, we desire Congress to rescind the obnoxious regulations of the new Tariff, it becomes us to set the example, by removing from our Custom-house that graduated scale of varying imposition, by which the wisdom of Parliament has cloaked its inexorable determination to maintain a rigid prohibition. If that were accomplished, the Americans would be found not to deserve the harsh rebukes of Mr. Huskisson: they are not so jealous, or so impracticable, as is commonly supposed; but the business of barter they know right well, and they will part with nothing without a fair equivalent.

But, if, in vain-glorious pride of our monarchical pre-eminence, we

scorn to propitiate America, and proceed to measures of revenge on her ungrateful forgetfulness of our 'moderation and forbearance,' we ought, in common prudence, to provide a shelter for the storm which is gathering above us. Unquestionably, it would be a measure of strict expediency to open the trade of China, and of the Eastern Archipelago, to our discontented shipowners, and the soil of India to European planters, and one which, in all probability, will be determined on at the expiration of the charter; but, when we talk of compensating for an injury to our commerce, which is present and immediate, we should gird ourselves for an earlier contest with what are denominated 'chartered rights;' and, with this view, political casuists cannot be better employed than in considering to what extent it may be profitable, wise, and just, to modify or cancel a treaty, destructive to the best interests of the country, ratified under circumstances of unexampled fraud and falsehood on one side, and unexampled credulity on the other.

THE DEATH OF EVA.

OFF did she wander at the fall of eve,
Through deepest woods, and lone, untrodden paths,
To list the music of the nightingale.
Though she was beautiful as is young morn,
Yet was a shade of silent sorrowing
So blended with that beauty, you might see
Grief once had been her guest. There was a time
When her young soul was sick of life—when earth,
And all its holds of bright and beautiful,
Were loathsome to her sight. There was a void
Within her mind that could not be supplied;
And troublous and disjointed images,
That unto madness scared and tortured her,
Had fix'd there dwelling there—her life was dark,
Rayless, and joyless—full of misery.
'Twas strong, undying love that had become
The tenant of her bosom—for a while
She revell'd in the agony of bliss;
But this at length was spurn'd,—and then was quench'd
The sun of her existence, and the night—
The fearful night of the despairing soul—
Darken'd around her, and she had no rest;
Yet was she strong in mind, and wrestled with
The demons that assail'd her; and her strength

Prevail'd against them—then the gleams of hope
 And sweet returning peace again were her's.
 She felt she'd yet be happy—passion's power
 Had rock'd itself to rest—again she long'd
 To look on Nature with a lover's eye,
 And from her rich stores drink delight ; but that
 Deceitful dream of love was now to be
 Cherish'd no longer, or remember'd as
 A shadow of the night, a bright day-dream,
 That had its hour—then perish'd. If at times
 Would flash the recollection of those hours
 Of nameless bliss across her youthful heart,
 When on her first and only love she gazed,
 Where now she stray'd alone, she'd only think
 How then the fairest of the sons of men
 He seem'd to her—then would she feel the springs
 Of love, within her still and tranquil soul,
 Were fresh and deep as ever—then her tears
 Fell without scorching—if at all she grieved,
 'Twas but the passing of a summer cloud,
 That leaves all nature fairer than before.
 One eve among the wild flowers did she rove,
 Full of strange pleasing musings ; and a calm
 Was on her spirit, holy and refined,
 As if in the eternal spheres of light
 It had been purified—a vision pass'd
 Before her—might it be ? Aye, 'twas the same,
 It was himself return'd—he who had left
 Her once to pine away in hopelessness,
 Pall'd with the heartless course that he had run,
 Was at her feet, and with repentant tears
 He bathed her hand, but spoke not—all at once,
 In its first strength her love return'd—the springs
 Of hidden passion, which Time's chastening hand
 Had fann'd into reposing gentleness,
 Too suddenly were troubled, and they rush'd
 At once into her inmost heart—he read
 In her fond eye that pardon which she could
 Not speak—she look'd upon him, and she died.
 He knew what he had done, ghastly he stood—
 The curse was on his forehead, and he fled.

L.

TALES OF PERSIA.

No. II.

The Fisherman of Ormus.

‘There are two classes of persons who are never to be satisfied; those who pursue knowledge and those who seek for riches.’—*Mémoires de Litt. Orient.*, t. ii. p. 290.

‘I have sought for happiness in opulence and glory; they are precious stones which only shine with a bright lustre from afar, and which a mere nothing may tarnish.’—*Nabi Effendi, to his Son.*

DURING the time when Bebut was only known by the surname of the Ambitious, he was conversing one day with his sovereign. The Schah, in a fit of familiarity, had condescended to permit his prime minister to be seated at his feet, on a rich carpet of Siston. He himself was just finishing his siesta. Reclining on a sofa, he lay breathing perfumed essences, chewing a Bactrian onion, and smiling at the conversation of his favourite.

Suddenly, Kel-Anayet, the jester of the great Abbas, entered the apartment; he was whimsically accoutred; he wore the peaked *delbend*,* and a long robe of blue.† He went straight to the ambitious minister, and, bowing profoundly with his arms crossed on his breast, humbly begged permission to kiss the hem of his garment.

‘Wherefore, fool,’ said Abbas, ‘dost thou address thy homage to Bebut rather than to thy master?’

‘I am by trade a fool,’ answered Kel-Anayet, proudly, ‘and I recognise no superior but such as can boast of more folly than I.’

‘Hear the jackanapes!’ said the king, laughing; ‘he attacks my prime minister. But wherefore these habiliments? Thou art almost clothed like a dervish?’

‘Alas! great king, so many at your court usurp my trade, that I foresee I must soon give up my place to them, and accustom myself to the dress of a hermit as a first step towards the life of one.’

‘Be it as it may; by the soul of the Prophet, in the absence of a better thou art always welcome. But hast thou not some tale to tell? I am in a humour now to hear thee.’

Kel-Anayet made a slight inclination of the head, to express his assent, and plumped himself down in a corner of the royal sofa.‡

* The *delbend* is the turban of the Persians. It is worn so large and thick that it sometimes weighs as much as fifteen pounds.

† In Persia the dervishes wear a blue robe.

‡ Throughout the East, the corner is considered as the most honourable place.

'Slave!' said Abbas, darting on him an angry glance, 'by what right dost thou assume in my presence the place set apart for the greatest?'

'Slave or king,' replied the buffoon, 'he who relates is always above him who listens.'

Abbas shrugged his shoulders. 'We must show our wisdom,' said he, 'in pardoning his absurdities. He is in a bad mood. It is a pity, for there is often good sense in his folly. He is out of his element now, because he is seeking to be wise.'

'He who seeks wisdom,' answered Kel-Anayet, 'can alone be esteemed wise; he who thinks he has found it, is a fool.'

'Markest thou, Bebut? My turn is now come; he spares none; but let him begin his tale, or, by these eyes! I will soon make him as wise as his ancestors.'

Kel-Anayet began thus:

One day the famous enchantress, Dalle-Mutaleha,* her brow girded with the carbuncle crown, darted from the mountains of Kaff, borne by the bird Simourg,† of speed equalling the winds. She directed her flight towards Bagdad. When above the islands of Ormus, she met in the air the angel Tir-Aban,‡ mounted on Borak, the celestial courser of the Prophet.||

'Whither goest thou?' said the sorceress to the genius of the sciences.

'I am going,' he answered, 'to comfort a learned man in poverty.'

'And I to relieve a rich one who is dying of ennui from ignorance. Which of the two is most to be pitied?'

'The rich blockhead, undoubtedly.'

'It may be, but opulence has its pleasures.'

'The pleasures of the imagination exceed them all.'

'The rich enjoy leisure and honour. They are followed by crowds of admirers. For them praise was invented, and praise is a delicious draught——'

'Which is followed by satiety and disgust. The mortal whom

* The Oriental Circe.

† The Persian poets relate that the carbuncle, that imaginary stone which they call 'the torch of the night,' on account of the dazzling brightness which they attribute to it, is formed in the head of the griffin, or immense eagle. It is undoubtedly the same creature Saadi calls *Simourg*, which inhabits the Hyperborean mountains of Kaff.

‡ *Tir* is the angel of the sciences; *Aban*, of the arts. We know not why Derwent has here blended them in one person.

|| The third night of the death of Mohammed, the angel Gabriel brought him a winged horse, called Borak, on which he was wafted to Heaven.—*Commentaires de l'Alkoran*.

I inspire is blest even by his dreams. He possesses all that his imagination pictures; he lives in a suppositious world which he can change or destroy at his pleasure. When his mind is weary of its own creations, he can fly to his beloved books; and what society even of the wisest and most virtuous can compare with those precious depositaries which contain the purest essence of the noblest spirits of all ages? Would he be more happy, could they who composed them issue from the grave to bear him company? I think not. Few good authors are equal to their works.'

'I could, on my side, say much on the subject of riches. I could expatiate on the real good which they procure, and, like you, display only the fair side of the picture; but I hate long discussions. Experience is the only sure path to truth. Let us then leave your learned man for the present to his poverty; according to your theory, he can easily bear it in dreaming of opulence. I, at the same time, will let my rich man keep his ignorance a little longer. He has had it from his infancy, and must be used to it by this time. Meanwhile, let us make a joint experiment: let us find a person for whom I will clear the path of fortune, and you that of knowledge. When he has attained all they can yield, we will leave him to himself, and draw our conclusions from the operation of the regular influences of human nature and human events upon the object of our respective favour.'

'Willingly,' said Tir-Aban, 'and I know at Ormus the very person for our project; it is a miserable fisherman; he is both poor and ignorant, and so weary of his lot, that we have only to lead him on a little, and we shall see him plunge most ardently into the double path we are to open for him.'

Ismael was at that moment on the banks of the Persian Gulf; he was occupied in mending his nets. 'What!' mournfully exclaimed he, 'am I to pass my whole life in this wretched manner? No food but pastecks,* or rice, or half-baked beans. No clothing but a courdi of miserable sackcloth which leaves the prints of its coarse, hard thread upon my skin. No bed but the cold earth, or a mat which I should think delightful were it but made of the reeds of the Euphrates, instead of the knotty straw of maize in braids like rope, which only effaces the impression of my sackcloth courdi to plough yet deeper and more painful furrows. Nay, even to obtain these hard indulgences, I must launch my terrada† in the sea, to seek the sturgeon and the delicate destpich, with which I have these five years supplied the tables of the opulent without having ever tasted either of them myself. I know not what the great pen above may

* Pastecks are water melons, the common food of the lower classes in Persia.

† A Persian bark.

have written down for me on the book of fate ; but I am wretched. The gulph is deep, and it would be only doing myself a kindness to fling the fishes a last bait which they little look for, and end their persecutions and my own together.'

At this moment Mutaleha and her companion appeared before him.

'Ismael,' said the soresceess, 'thy complaints have reached us. Wouldst thou at once be rich and powerful? The opportunity is offered. The son of the aged Noserat, so noted for his wealth, has just expired suddenly in his bed, and the event is known to none but me. Thy voice and features so thoroughly resemble his, that it is impossible to discern the difference. Follow me ; I will direct the removal of the body : thou mayst take his place.'

Ismael was almost out of his wits with surprise and exultation. He jumped up behind the enchantress, on the bird Simourg, and was forthwith in the apartment of the deceased. One last instruction remained to be given. The son of Noserat had a slight winking of the eye, which it was easy, but essential, to imitate. Ismael promised to pay due attention to the peculiarity, and his protectress departed, saying she would visit him from time to time in secret. He passed the night in repeating to himself the instructions of Mutaleha, and in winking his eyes to inure himself to the habit.

In the morning, slaves came to attend his toilet. He winked his eyes, and all went on charmingly. They dressed him in a superb robe of zerbafe, surmounted by a courdi of cloth of gold. A girdle of Terman wool, embroidered in pearls, set off his attire still more, and his head was loaded with a magnificent delbend, adorned with turquoises and rubies.

Poor Ismael did not know himself again. He was every moment on the point of betraying himself by his politeness to his slaves. He began almost to feel a respect for himself, and winked his eyes so much that the master of his wardrobe inquired if he found himself indisposed. He trembled at these words, and was only recovered by the entrance of the governor of the kitchens, who came to take his orders for his first meal. He commanded him to bring him some sturgeon and destpich. He was in hopes of seeing part of what he caught the night before, and was quite delighted at the thought that he was at last to know his old adversaries of the gulph otherwise than by sight. They were soon set before him, escorted by a multitude of delicious fruits, such as dates of Persepolis, pomegranates of Yesd, Mircanian oranges, quinces and prunes from Caramania, mingled with fine patties, moist and dry sweet-meats, and slices of lemon, and powder of aromatic herbs, to awaken the appetite. Ismael saw very little necessity for any stimulus of that sort. He ate of every thing, got the first indigestion he had ever had, and considered himself the most fortunate of men.

He next paid a visit to the harem of his predecessor. The young beauties of Georgia and Circassia made such an impression on him, that, in his ecstacy, he forgot to wink his eyes ; but the congratulations he received on this subject frightened him so much, and so completely occupied his mind, that they entirely withdrew his attention from the caresses of his fair ones, who now began to wonder as much at the change in his susceptibility, as they before did at that in his eyelids.

Old Noserat saw the substitute for his son, and suspected nothing. Ismael passed fifteen days amidst the most splendid enjoyments of luxury and opulence ; during which, however, his assumed infirmity often put him to hard trials. At the end of this time, the old man set off upon a journey to court, and left his supposed son to reign absolute in his palace. It was then that Ismael astonished the kingdom of Ormus, by the pomp of his equipages and the magnificence of his fêtes.

His saloons glittered with gold, and jasper, and porphyry. Their walls, decked with translucent marble of Tauris, were inlaid with squares of enamel, and hung with the richest silks, and with velvet, embroidered with silver, and with the finest stuffs of Kerman. They were thronged with buffoons, dressed in glittering brocade, and with sprightly, and sylph-like, and fascinating, young dancing-girls, the braids of whose long, luxuriant hair ended in bouquets of precious gems, and who executed, before him and his chosen friends, exquisite dances, varying from the dignified to the burlesque, from the austere to the voluptuous. Then came a repast, served up in gold, comprising every delicacy in fruit, or fish, or game, which the soft climate of Persia can produce. The buffet, which rose in the form of a pyramid, was crowned with numberless flasks of Venetian chrystal, cut with points like diamonds, and sparkling with the bright-hued wines of Schiraz and of Georgia. Perfumed wax-lights, while they reflected numerous lustres upon the prismatic faces of the chrystal, drew from them floods of enpurpled rays ; while their own scent of cinnamon and cloves mingled with the delicious perfumes from the vermilion cassolets suspended from the ceiling.

Then a troop of musicians——

‘ Spare, oh spare us thy descriptions,’ cried Abbas, interrupting Kel-Anayet, ‘ we know all these things better than thou canst tell us. Thou art only describing the last fête which I gave.’

‘ Could I do better ?’ answered Kel-Anayet. ‘ Memory is the repose of genius. While I speak under its influence, the inventive spirit takes its rest, and the coursers of narrative renovate their strength, to draw, with increased rapidity, the car of imagination.’

‘ Finish the history of thy fisherman. I will not interrupt thee again. I like even thy descriptions better than thy explanations.’ And Kel-Anayet continued :

Then a troop of musicians, bearing hautboys, and flutes, and

tanbourines, entered the banqueting-hall, and made it resound with harmonious airs. Ismael ordered cups of gold of inestimable workmanship to be distributed to the guests; and, after they were all intoxicated with wine, and bang, and afioun,* he made each a present, and the fête terminated with a general masquerade.†

Every body was amused but Ismael. He alone took very little part in the entertainment, so occupied was he in regulating the convulsive movements of his eyelids. Dalle-Mutaleha came to him at night. He did not yet venture to complain; but he barely mentioned the inconvenience he suffered from the continual necessity of winking his eyes. She advised him to be patient, and promised to see him again soon.

The days flowed on, and renewed the same pleasures and the same ennui. Old Noserat returned from his journey. Ismael was away on a grand fishing party. The doating father, to give his darling son an agreeable surprise, sought him on the lake of Toranka. He appeared astonished at the youth's skill, and gently reproached him for having taken so much pains to acquire an art which could never be any credit to him. Ismael defended his old trade so warily, that, in his earnestness, his eyes remained fixed in a steady stare. All of a sudden he thought of this. He at once fancied he saw a thousand swords turned towards him, to punish his imposture. He was seized with such a fright, that he changed colour, stammered, and was silent. Noserat, supposing that his silence and embarrassment expressed his submission, availed himself of the opportunity, like a good father, to make him feel that it was more honourable to be surrounded by the wise and the learned, and to devote himself to study, than to waste his life among libertines, and buffoons, and dancing-girls, acquiring no sciences but those of eating and angling.

Our fisherman listened to the old man respectfully, and promised to profit by his advice. In this he foresaw a double advantage. Knowledge is a plant which is easily cultivated in solitude. There he would be quite independent of the looks of the slaves who perpetually surrounded him, and who only seemed to him so many spies set to watch his winking. Besides, from learned men he could be under no apprehension. They were always too full of their own thoughts to think of his eyes. With astrologers he was equally

* The liquor named *bang*, or *pueng*, or *poust*, is, according to Chardin, an infusion of poppies, hempseed, and *mur vomica*. According to others, it is a juice drawn from henbane, mixed with opium. Whatever it may be, the abuse of this dangerous liquor causes madness, and occasions the most fatal results. The Indians made use of it for state criminals, or pretenders to the crown; and, too humane to deprive them of life, like the Turks, or of sight, like the Persians, they prefer taking away the use of reason, which is sufficient to make them incapable of reigning.

Afioun is the true name of liquid opium.

† Whence we derive the word masquerade.

safe. When their glances were not on the heavens, they were on a takium,* and could not trouble his.

His new project almost restored his tranquillity. He put it in execution ; and, presently, the Ismael who had sighed so devoutly after the goods of this world, forgot them all in dreaming of the treasures of science and the riches of the mind.

Having one evening retired to his apartment, he took up a manuscript by chance, which opened at these words :—‘ *As many steps as you shall rise upon the ladder of fortune, so many you will have to descend. The ladder of knowledge has its support in heaven ; and time, which crumbles the palaces of the wealthy on the heads of their possessors, only adds to the glory of the sage.*’ ‘It is a direct warning from the Prophet!’ cried Ismael. ‘Of what use to me is the possession of fragile goods, of vases which break under the hand, of perfumes which evaporate, of wines which intoxicate, of rich dainties which cause indigestion? Ah! severe has been my experience! The life of the rich is a continual intoxication: the pleasure passes, the headache remains! Then, to be for ever in a state of apprehension! For ever winking the eyes! No—this is not life. But, to drink of the fountain of knowledge,—to hear one’s name repeated from lip to lip,—to secure the admiration of posterity by noble and lasting works,—that, ay, *that*, is the real happiness! When Mostrazem dared to insult the Cojanessir, the rash caliph was hurled from the throne of Bagdad. Wise Alfarsi, prolific Avicenna,—Saadi, the nightingale of Iran,—Chekat, the eagle of genius,—graceful Hafez, sublime Attar!—Oh! that the name of Ismael might pass, like yours, in a blaze of glory to posterity! To secure such a blessing, how willingly would I give half my life!’

‘The offer is accepted,’ instantly exclaimed Tir-Aban, entering at that moment, followed by Mutaleha: Ismael was thunderstruck. ‘What!’ cried the Egyptian sorceress, ‘have not my gifts, then, been enough for thee?’ ‘Alas, that fatal condition—that everlasting wink of the eye!’—‘Short-sighted man! thinkest thou that he who foregoes the lot to which he has been destined by Providence, in pursuit of wealth and honours, can attain them without far greater discomforts than any thou hast suffered? But what thou now feelest, thousands have felt before thee. The least restraint poisons the most perfect happiness, as a single pearl misplaced in the dress of a woman, often makes her forget the diamonds with which she is covered. I now resign thee to my companion, who is alone capable of fulfilling thy present desires. From this moment I take from thee the riches thou hast found so troublesome and useless. I have preserved the body of the son of Nozerat: it shall remain in its place. The day of mourning will thus have only been a few months delayed, and the affairs of his father’s house will return to their natural course.’

* Persian Almanac.

'You are to be the most learned of men,' said Tir-Aban. 'I!' repeated Ismael in confusion,—'I! I who am the most ignorant! I can understand how a poor man can suddenly become rich, but how a blockhead—' 'The rough stone of Badakam, when purified by the rays of the sun, becomes a ruby,' said the angel. 'Follow me. Science dwells not beneath the gilded roof. You must now be placed in a retreat better suited to the improvement of your condition.' Ismael got up behind him on Borak; and the palace of Noserat, the Persian Gulf, and the kingdom of Ormus, presently disappeared from beneath them.

Wafted with the rapidity of an eagle's flight into Irak-Adjemy, Ismael found himself forthwith close to the city of Teheran.* On the banks of a streamlet he saw a little cottage. It was simple, but commodious,—unostentatious, but not without elegance. 'This house,' said Tir-Aban, 'belongs to thee. Thou wilt here find the most precious of all furniture,—books, and mathematical and astronomical instruments. Incense and myrrh will no longer burn for thee in golden cassolets; but the eleya and the mastick tree will afford thee their shade and sweet perfume. Now, receive from me the gift of languages. They are the avenues to the temple of science. But, before all, if thou wilt enlighten thy reason, learn to doubt. Doubt is the gate of knowledge. He who doubts of nothing, examines nothing; he who examines nothing, discovers nothing; and he who discovers nothing, may, perhaps, be a good scholar, but never a true sage.'

The angel then touched Ismael with his hand, reminded him that it was at the expense of one-half of his life that his name was to be made immortal, and, throwing himself on his celestial steed, disappeared.

In a few years, Ismael became famous for his vast learning. The most celebrated doctors of Persia confessed themselves incapable of coping with him. His works in medicine, astronomy, theology, mathematics, natural history, poetry, &c. &c., were multiplied so rapidly and were received so favourably, that the people soon considered him master of the seventy-two sciences necessary to his being proclaimed Mouktched.† This dignified title was decreed to him. It was even enhanced by the added appellation of the '*third master*,'—Aristotle and Alfarabi having always ranked as the two first.

The scientific prodigy of Irak no longer doubted of his immortality, and enjoyed its sweets in advance. Princes sought him and repeated his words as they repeat those of the imans or the prophets. The people every where threw themselves in his path, to

* At present the capital of Persia.

† The great learned men of Persia are called *mouktched*. This word signifies a man who possesses all the sciences in perfection. The people alone can bestow this noble title, which is seldom granted more than two or three times in a century.

obtain a look from him, or to touch the hem of his robe; and the greatest sages of Asia traversed the seas to consult him.

In the midst, however, of these universal praises, envy was on the watch, and eager for the opportunity to attack him. It was not long ere it arrived. Continual admiration is an affliction to the multitude. It received with eagerness the most contradictory reports concerning the learned Ismael. He was accused of not being the real author of his works, of having found them in some old and unknown manuscripts. Many questions in them savoured of heresy. He believed in the eternity of matter, and was accused of atheism, although every one of his books began with homage to God and to his Prophet.

This injustice disgusted the sage. His heart was wounded by it. In his chagrin at some harsh criticisms, he would fain have been able to extinguish the brilliant lights which he had kindled for this ungrateful people. Almost discouraged, he withdrew to the banks of his streamlet, and left the redress of his wrongs to posterity.

A young girl of Teheran, who, though she had never read his works, was magnanimous enough not to speak ill of them, pleased our philosopher, and he married her. They had children, and his happiness increased with his family. Living retired, without the least noise or ostentation, he now gave no more attention to study than was necessary to keep up the improvement of his mind, and amuse his leisure. His children grew, and he became their instructor. Cultivating at the same time his books and his garden, and turning knowledge to the use of virtue, he was astonished to find himself more happy than he had been amidst the festivals of Ormus, in the courts of kings, or in the zenith of popular favour.

One day he was suddenly seized with a kind of fainting. His terrified wife and all his children ran to him, with the exception of his eldest son who was then absent in the city. Whilst they were lavishing their tender attentions on him, Ismael perceived that the terrace of his house was suddenly illuminated, and heard the people without, as they passed by, murmur the prayers for the dying.* At the very moment, Tir-Aban and Mutaleha appeared. The latter held in her hand a flower of gulbad-samour,† the fatal plant which has the power of poisoning the breath that passes over it.

'Ismael!' said the sorceress, 'thou hast made the sacrifice of half thy years to glory. Thy last hour of life is come, and thou art entering immortality.' Then, at the four corners of the couch of Ismael, there appeared the four angels of death, Monkir, Nekir, Mordad, and Esraël. 'Oh, holy Prophet!' cried the philosopher, 'to die!—to die just as existence was beginning to be sweet!—my

* When a Persian is in the agonies of death, lights are placed on the external terrace of his house, to warn the passers-by to pray for him.

† *Gulbad-samour*, that is, *the flower that poisons the wind*. The Arabs call it *churk*, and Thomas Moore, in his poem of 'Lalla Rookh,' speaks of it by the name of *Kerzereeth*.

wife, my children ! must I then bid you an eternal adieu ? Alas ! will the glory of my name console you for my loss ?—Hold !' exclaimed he to Mutaleha, who was presenting him the gulbad-samour, 'oh, hold ! one of my children is absent. May I not see him ere I die ? To-morrow—' 'Delay is impossible,' said Tir-Aban, 'unless, indeed, thou wilt renounce the future honours of posterity. Do this, and thy death may be deferred three days—no longer !' 'Three days !' said the dying man. 'Sacrifice the great name for which I have been so long toiling for three little days ! Weigh three days in the balance against ages of glory ! But I cannot die without once more beholding my beloved boy ! Heartless, unfeeling genius of knowledge, thou hast deceived me like that of fortune ! Take back thy gifts. Let me die unknown, but give me three days more,—three days to be enjoyed with my dear family,—three days that I may press my absent son once more to my heart.'

'The nobleness of this sentiment disarms us,' said Tir-Aban. 'Ismael, pursue thy course undisturbed in the bosom of study and of nature. Thou hast sacrificed fortune to a trilling restraint. Thou now sacrificest glory to three days of life. Live henceforth for thy family and for happiness, and think no more of obtaining in future age a delusive triumph in which the triumpher can take no share.'

'Well,' said the Egyptian sorceress, 'which of us has gained the victory in this experiment ?'

'Both and neither,' answered Tir-Aban. 'Knowledge and fortune are both good for those who know how to make a good use of them ; but excess spoils every thing. The base passions of man intrude upon his prosperity and turn it to poison. He only treats wealth as the means of satisfying his fancies, and his eagerness for momentary gratifications. He does not make it the accomplisher of his highest and noblest impulses. Of science he is equally unworthy. He only employs it to feed his vanity. The example of the fisherman of Ormus ought to teach us to prize beyond riches and honours—'

'Tranquillity,' interrupted Mutaleha.

'And virtue,' added the angel.

Here Kel-Anayet, (a really wise man under the mask of a fool,) ended his recital. Abbas, who had been some time in a doze, seemed to be startled up as the voice ceased, just as a miller is when his mill stops suddenly.

'That story of thine, my honest fellow,' exclaimed he, 'seems most drowsily moral.'

'He forgets his business,' said Bebut.

'Not so,' retorted our pretended buffoon. 'Does not he who throws good grain on a barren soil, or who gives good counsel to the deaf, or lessons of wisdom to the ambitious,—prove himself a fool ?'

Bebut quivered with passion and looked at Abbas, who, to avoid punishing the moralist, feigned to sleep again.

VOYAGE FROM BOMBAY TO THE PERSIAN GULF, BY THE SOUTHERN PASSAGE.

[The nautical portions of this Original Journal will be found to possess sufficient interest for the Navigator and Hydrographer, to whom most of the observations will be both new and important; and this consideration alone induces us to give them a place in our pages, where all that can elucidate the maritime peculiarities of the Eastern Seas, will be as strictly in place, as that which relates only to its *Continents* or *Islands*. In addition, however, to the merely nautical information, the Journal will be found to contain, as it proceeds, much of novelty and interest respecting the countries and people lying on each side of the Gulf, both in Arabia and Persia, collected, under advantageous circumstances, on the spot.]

No. I.

Departure from Bombay—Islands of the Seychelles—Tempestuous Monsoon—Entry into the Persian Gulf.

THE south-west monsoon having already set in on the western coast of India, it was deemed impossible, by those most conversant with the navigation of these seas, for us to make a direct passage across the Arabian Sea, from Bombay to Muscat. The 15th of May is considered to be the latest period at which any hope remains of effecting the direct passage; though some are of opinion that even as late as the 30th a middle passage may be made, by going down the coast of Concan, as far as the Angrias Bank, between Bombay and Goa, or between the latitude of 16° and 17° N., and then standing across S.W. before the N.W. winds are ended, and the monsoon fairly set in, by which means sufficient westing might be obtained to admit of bearing up before the S.W. monsoon, at the time of meeting it, and making a northerly course good afterwards. As it was now the 4th of June, no hope remained of our making either the direct or the middle passage, so that we prepared ourselves for the southern one.

On the 5th, it falling slack water at 4 P.M., we weighed from the outer anchorage of Bombay, with the ebb of the neap tide, and the wind from the S.S.W., or right a-head. By sun-set we had nearly got the marks on, having Toll Nob in one with the Paps, which is the line of bearing from the pitch of the South-west Prong; and, when the Nob is brought to the northward of these Paps, the reef is weathered, and the harbour considered to be cleared. While these were just in one, however, the ship was laid nearly over on her beam-ends by a violent squall, which obliged us to clew all down; and, the force of the wind rendering it impossible to carry any sail, while the heavy rain, and the darkness of the night, prevented our seeing either lights or marks for our guide, the pilot thought it necessary to bear up for the anchorage again, and accordingly we anchored at about 7 P.M., in seven fathoms, with the light-vessel of the *Sunken Rock* distant about a third of a mile.

June 6.—Though the tides were so slack, being now in the dead of the neaps, that the pilot himself despaired of our getting out until the springs, we were determined to give it another trial, and accordingly weighed with the first gleam of the dawn. By 9 A.M., after hard beating under a press of sail, we had the marks for clearing the Reef nearly on; and the prospect of our getting out, as we had now daylight and two hours' tide before us, seemed so favourable, that the pilot was permitted to leave us before the harbour was properly cleared. At 10 A.M. we were taken sharp aback, with a hard squall from the W.N.W., while standing off shore, which split the jib, and threw us round on the starboard tack, with our head to the S.W. At noon, having gradually fallen off, and finding ourselves in $7\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms water, with no land in sight, from the thickness of the weather and rain, we wore off to the N.W.; and at 1 h. 30 m. P.M., as the sky cleared up for a moment, we were enabled to fix our position by distinct bearings.

The wind continued to shift from S.W. to N.W. throughout the afternoon, and obliged us frequently to veer ship, which, with the flood-tide now setting strong against us, prevented our gaining much ground. The weather continued to be squally, the wind variable, and the atmosphere constantly darkened by rain, so that all our attention was required to maintain a sharp look-out, and we wore ship almost every hour from tack to tack.

June 7.—At 2 A.M. we had shoaled into $\frac{1}{2}$ less 7 fathoms; but, the wind drawing now more westerly, we were enabled to luff off the coast, and deepened to 12, $12\frac{1}{2}$, 13, and 14 fathoms at noon, when we were in lat. $18^{\circ} 25' N.$, and long. $72^{\circ} 42' E.$, and at midnight we had deepened to 21 fathoms. In the afternoon we descried a ship a-head, standing, like ourselves, to the southward, and at sunset had so far overhauled her, as to perceive it was a ship from Bengal, bound to the Persian Gulf, which had sailed two days before us from Bombay.

June 8.—At sun-rise the Bengal ship was seen on our lee quarter, bearing N.E. by N., distant about two miles, and we were then in 22 fathoms. At 8 A.M. we had deepened to 30 fathoms, on a rocky bottom; at 10, we had 32 fathoms; and at noon, 35, on hard ground, being then in lat. $17^{\circ} 2' N.$, long. $72^{\circ} 54' E.$ The weather still continued squally, with hard rain, and the wind veered between W. and W.S.W., with a high sea. About 10 P.M., we bore away a point free, to steer S. by E., and at midnight sounded in 40 fathoms, on a sandy bottom.

June 9.—Considering ourselves now secure of our offing, we continued to steer S. by E. along the edge of the bank, for the purpose of preserving the soundings of from 30 to 40 fathoms, as a guide for the fair way down between the islands of the Laccadives and Maldives and the Indian coast, and unbent the cables and stowed the

anchors. At noon we observed in lat. $14^{\circ} 50' N.$, and were in long. $73^{\circ} 39' E.$, in the depth of 41 fathoms; when edging in towards the shore, on a course of S.S.E., we had shoaled gradually to 34 fathoms at midnight, on a light blue sandy bottom. The weather continued to be squally, with rain, and the wind prevailing from the W.S.W.

June 10.—From midnight we had hauled off half a point, steering now S. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E., and, from the increasing strength of the wind, were under double-reefed topsails at noon, observing in lat. $12^{\circ} 34' N.$, and being in long. $74^{\circ} 44' E.$, with soundings in 30 fathoms on sand. We had the same depth at sunset, which induced us to haul off half a point more, and steer S. by E., when we had 32 fathoms at midnight, and were soon after in lat. $11^{\circ} 54' N.$, by an altitude of the star Benetnach.

June 11.—The weather had now become more settled, and the wind blew steadily from the W.S.W., without squalls or rain, so that we shook out all the reefs. At noon we observed in lat. $10^{\circ} 21' N.$, and were in long. $76^{\circ} 1' E.$, sounding in 40 fathoms on sand, and having experienced the influence of a current setting to the eastward, at the rate of nearly a mile per hour. We had now passed the latitude of Mount Dilly, and the whole range of the Laccadives, (where we had been assured that we should find the weather most squally,) without having any sudden gust of wind, or a single shower of rain; and, as we opened the Nine Degree Channel, we found the sea smoother, and the weather still clearer and more settled. From noon we steered S., having now nearly cleared the length of the Malabar Coast; and about 9 p.m. we had a latitude of $9^{\circ} 44' N.$ by the star Benetnach, and soon after, of $9^{\circ} 41' N.$ by the star Arcturus.

June 12.—Still strong westerly winds, but fine weather, and the ship under all sail. At daylight we hauled close to the wind, and attempted to go out through the Eight Degree Channel, under the hope of cutting off all the length of the Maldiva Archipelago, and running down our westing in a higher latitude; but, though we had fine weather enough, yet the wind was too dead a-head to effect any thing. We observed at noon in lat. $8^{\circ} 21' N.$, and were in long. $75^{\circ} 56' E.$, having now got off the bank of soundings entirely. We continued to steer S., and at 8 h. 30 m. p.m., were in lat. $7^{\circ} 34'$ by an altitude of the star Arcturus, the weather still fine.

June 13.—The course still S., and the wind W. The lat. at noon $6^{\circ} 22' N.$, long. $76^{\circ} 12' E.$; and at 7 p.m. the latitude per Benetnach $5^{\circ} 45' N.$, with steady weather, and a smooth sea.

June 14.—Winds growing lighter, and drawing round more southerly. Lat. observed at noon, $4^{\circ} 24' N.$, long. $76^{\circ} 5' E.$ In the afternoon, light airs and intervals of calms, with squalls at times, accompanied with rain. At 8 p.m., latitude per Benetnach, $3^{\circ} 44' N.$,

and at 8h. 30m., latitude per Arcturus, $3^{\circ} 40' N.$, with unsteady weather.

June 15.—Soon after sunrise the wind had changed to S.W., which obliged us now to steer S.S.E. At noon we were in lat. $2^{\circ} 44' N.$, and in long. $76^{\circ} 12' E.$, with a slight current, and a swell from the S.E. The wind light and variable throughout the afternoon, and our lat., by the star Arcturus, at 8 P.M., $2^{\circ} 20' N.$

June 16.—Fresher breezes, and more steadily clear weather, but the wind still well to the westward. At noon our lat. observed was $1^{\circ} 1' N.$, and long. $75^{\circ} 17' E.$ We had hauled up here to the S.W., in order to go sharp round the southern extreme of the Maldiva Archipelago, and, if possible, proceed by the northern, or short route, and run our westing down in 4° or 5° south latitude; but, as we got to the westward, we found the wind more dead against us, so that we were obliged to steer south again. As we expected to cross the Line about midnight, we took the altitudes of several stars in the evening watch, which gave us,—

By the star in the foot of the Southern Cross,	$0^{\circ} 20' N.$	} All near each other in time.
By the Spica Virginis,	0 20	
By Benetnach,	0 17	
By Arcturus,	0 20	

June 17.—While crossing the Line, we had steady westerly breezes, and fine weather, the ship being under all sail. At noon we observed in lat. $1^{\circ} 3' S.$, and were in long. $75^{\circ} 36' E.$, with a slight current setting to the eastward.

June 18.—Lighter and more variable breezes, but still clear weather. At noon observed in lat. $2^{\circ} 54' S.$, and were in long. $75^{\circ} 45' E.$, with the same slight easterly current as yesterday; and in the evening we had squally weather, with showers of rain, and a declining wind.

June 19.—At sunrise the ship had scarcely steerage way, and before noon it was a dead calm. We had now got completely beyond the range of the south-west monsoon, and were anxiously looking towards the south-east quarter for the trade-wind, by which we still hoped to run our westing down in 1° or 5° south latitude. Our hopes of this were kept alive by the heavy swells which came from that quarter, and which, as the ship was now unmanageable by the helm, caused her to roll and tumble about in the sea more violently than the hardest tempest could have done. At noon we observed in lat. $4^{\circ} 20' S.$, and were in long. $75^{\circ} 47' E.$, but continued to be becalmed throughout all the rest of the day.

June 20.—The calm continued all night, and the swell was equally heavy from the south-east, the weather hot, but not oppressively so. At noon we observed in lat. $4^{\circ} 29' S.$, and were in long. $75^{\circ} 45' E.$, having made the southing by a current, since the swell was a head one, and the sails had never been once full throughout the last

twenty-four hours. One of the Arab sailors of the crew, who was the stoutest and strongest man in the ship when we left Bombay, having pined away by a disease which none of us could tell the nature of, was committed to the deep by his Arab comrades on board, with greater feeling and solemnity than is usually seen among Indian sailors, and with the accustomed ceremonies and prayers of the Mohammedan religion. The smell of the dead body had attracted several sharks around the ship, one of which, being eight feet in length, and six in girth at the broadest part, was harpooned and hauled on board. Soon after noon we caught the south-west trade, which blew in such light airs, as induced us to believe that it would be necessary to go still farther south to have it in any force, and we accordingly steered S.W. with this view, under all sail.

June 21.—The wind veering between S.E. and S.S.E., and growing lighter, instead of gaining strength, still obliged us to go farther south in search of the steady trade. At noon we observed in lat. $5^{\circ} 20'$ S., and were in long. $75^{\circ} 25'$ E., and in the evening we had some light squalls, with flying showers of rain.

June 22.—The weather more settled, and the breeze fresher; but, being now abreast of the Chagos Archipelago, it was thought better to stand still further to the southward, in order to go round the island of Diego Garcia, which forms its southern extreme. We accordingly stood on S.W., observing in lat. $6^{\circ} 7'$ S. at noon, and being then in long. $71^{\circ} 27'$ E. In the afternoon the wind drew more southerly, being S.S.E. at 4 p.m., and S. by E. at sunset. Its strength increased; but it still came sometimes in squalls, with rain.

June 23.—An increasing breeze at S.S.E., with occasional squalls of rain. Being now well down to the southward, we steered W.S.W., and at noon were in lat. $7^{\circ} 38'$ S., and long. $72^{\circ} 53'$ E. We ran along in this parallel steering west, but without making the island of Diego Garcia, which I saw on a former occasion of my going by the southern route from Bombay to the Red Sea. This island is, however, so low, as not to be clearly distinguished at a greater distance than 12 or 15 miles in the day, and five or six at night; so that, as we passed ten miles to the southward of it, and crossed its meridian after sunset, it was not likely that we should see it.

June 24.—We had the wind now fresh from the S.E., but more squally and rainy than before; steering west, with the wind on the quarter, and being often obliged to lower the topsails, and clew all down, from its violence. At noon we observed in lat. $7^{\circ} 46'$ S., and were in long. $70^{\circ} 46'$ E., or just to the southwestward of the bank on which soundings of 15 and 17 fathoms were obtained by his Majesty's ship *Centurion*, according to the charts; but, as our water here was of a deep sea blue, we did not heave the lead. In the after-

noon we had the trade wind declining in force, and veering to E.S.E., and at midnight it blew directly east, and steady.

June 25.—Steady breezes from the E.S.E., and the ship steering W. by N., under all sail. At noon we were in lat. $7^{\circ} 31' S.$, and in long. $69^{\circ} 6' E.$, and in the afternoon we had again squally weather, with rain, the wind shifting frequently to every point between S. and E., and sometimes flying suddenly round to the very opposite quarter.

June 26.—We had the wind more settled at S.E., and steadily fresh throughout the day. At noon we observed in lat. $7^{\circ} 44' S.$, and were in long. $67^{\circ} 22' E.$ In the afternoon, the wind becoming lighter and more variable, we thought it best to haul a point or two more southerly, for the sake of getting into the steadier trade.

June 27.—As we advanced to the southward, we found the weather more settled and clear, and the S.E. trade more steady and fresh. At noon we observed in lat. $8^{\circ} 11' S.$, and were in long. $65^{\circ} 14' E.$ Having now strong breezes from the S.E., we steered W. by N. under all sail.

June 28.—At day-light the wind had veered round to E.N.E., and at 6 A.M. we were taken flat aback with the wind from the westward, and obliged to brace sharp up, and haul to the southward. From this till 10 A.M. we had the wind from every point of the compass, accompanied with squalls, and intervals of calms and rain. At noon the sun was obscured, and continued to be so all day; but the ship's place, as corrected by the run from yesterday noon, was in lat. $7^{\circ} 55' S.$, and long. $63^{\circ} 1' E.$ In the afternoon the wind returned to E.S.E., and enabled us to steer free. At 8 P.M. our latitude, by the star in the eastern foot of the Centaur, was $7^{\circ} 59' S.$, and about midnight, by a meridian altitude of the moon, $8^{\circ} 2' S.$

June 29.—At sun-rise, we saw a ship bearing S.S.E., standing to the north-eastward under all sail, and distant from us about nine miles. At noon we observed in lat. $7^{\circ} 41' S.$, and were in long. $60^{\circ} 16' E.$, having the doubtful island of George to the N.E., and the bank of Saya de Malha to the southward of us. As we had not seen any land since our leaving Bombay, and there was such a disagreement between the longitude given by our dead reckoning, and that given by the chronometer, as to make us suspect the accuracy of both, it was thought best to make a degree or two of westing more than the usual limit for bearing up, and by running over to the Mabe Archipelago, and sounding on the bank there, or seeing some of the Seychelle Islands, to correct our longitude, before we recrossed the Line. We therefore continued to steer westerly for another twenty-four hours, having variable winds between E. and S.S.E., with hard squalls, accompanied with rain, and an overcast and cloudy sky.

June 30.—The weather continued still unsettled, with squalls and

rain throughout. At noon we observed in lat. $7^{\circ} 42'$ S., and were in long. $57^{\circ} 58'$ E., by account corrected from a good lunar observation on the afternoon of the 24th of June; the long., by dead reckoning, being at the same time $57^{\circ} 29'$ E., but that by chronometer $60^{\circ} 40'$ E., which we considered to be at least 3° in error to the eastward of the truth. We accordingly now bore up N.W. for the Seychelle Bank, intending to pass to the eastward of the Fortune, Adelaide, and Success, which are smaller shoals to the southward of this Archipelago. We had still squally weather, with rain. By an amplitude of the sun in the evening, the magnetic variation was found to be $6^{\circ} 15'$ westerly.

July 1.—The wind now blew fresh from the southward, with a clear sky. At noon we were in lat. $6^{\circ} 22'$ S., and in long. $57^{\circ} 25'$ E., with deep blue water, and a following swell, the wind drawing more easterly at noon, and at sunset being settled at S.S.E.

July 2.—Our water being observed to be of a greenish hue, we hove a cast of the lead, and obtained soundings on the eastern edge of the Seychelle Bank, in 50 fathoms, on a sandy bottom, at 8 A.M. Our latitude observed at noon was $4^{\circ} 47'$ S., and longitude, brought up by account from the lunar observation of the 24th of June, $56^{\circ} 42'$, which corresponded very accurately with the situation given by our soundings. At 1 h. 30 m. P.M. we saw one of the islands from the mast-head, bearing about W.N.W., and at 5 h. 30 m. P.M. were sufficiently near a group of them to perceive that they were the islands called Frigate's Island, Marianne, and the Three Sisters. Our longitude, per lunar observation, was now found to be within five or six miles of the truth, while that by dead reckoning merely was about 40 miles too far to the westward, from the general set of a westerly current with the trade winds,—and that by chronometer was upwards of 2° too far to the eastward, its daily rate of loss given us by Mr. Hereford at Bombay being $12''$, whereas we found it to have lost on a mean daily $21''$, or exactly double. We were now enabled to correct its rate, and, having altitudes for the mean time here, in the afternoon, with the bearings of the islands in sight, took a fresh departure.

The appearance of these islands of the Seychelles is very different from those of the Chagos Archipelago; the latter, of which Diego Garcia is the principal, is almost wholly formed of coral, and is consequently but of little elevation above the water's edge. Those of the Seychelles, on the contrary, are high islands, and evidently formed of stone. They appeared to us, as well as we could judge from the distance at which we saw them, to be destitute of wood, and to be otherwise also barren; nor are any of the inferior islands of this group inhabited, although there was formerly a French, and is now a small English, settlement at the harbour of the principal island. This Archipelago was discovered in 1743, by Lazarus Picault, and named after the famous Mahé de la Bourdonnais, then

Governor of the Mauritius. They are situated in the middle of a great bank of soundings, of which Seychelles, or Mahé, is the principal. This is about sixteen miles long, by five in breadth, and has a harbour on its N.E. end, off Bat River, affording shelter from all winds. This island, which gives its name to the whole Archipelago, is said to be high, but not cultivated; and the tide rises six feet there, the flood setting S.S.W., and high water falling at 5 h. 30 m. P.M. on the full and change of the moon. Most of the Seychelle islands abound with turtle; and near the sea, on the low grounds, cocoa-nut trees are abundant, while on the hills are also found some trees of hard wood. The French fed cattle on some of these islands, and colonised the most valuable of them with slaves from Madagascar. Seals also have been seen in great numbers on the shores of some of the lower islands of this group; for it must be remarked, that, though the large islands are high hills of stone, some of the smaller ones are apparently formed of coral, and on these are found cocoa-nut trees, sea birds, seals, turtle, sharks, and other fishes, but little fresh water.

These islands are a portion of that chain of sub-marine mountains which seems to extend from Madagascar to Sumatra, and to project its points above the surface of the ocean at irregular intervals, in the form of islands, reefs, banks, and shoals, dividing the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal from the Great Southern Ocean, and offering a field of speculation for the geologist.

At sunset we steered north, conceiving ourselves to have now made sufficient westing to secure our passage. The winds varied between S. and E., and the weather was very hazy, but the breeze moderate, and the water smooth.

July 3.—The morning opened with fresh breezes from between the south and east, accompanied by sudden squalls and showers of rain, and the sun was obscured during the whole of the day. The ship's place, by computation, was in lat. $3^{\circ} 12' S.$, and long. $56^{\circ} 4' E.$ at noon, having made some westing during the heavy squalls from the eastward, which often obliged us to bear up from them.

July 4.—The wind was now more settled from the southward, and the sky clear. At noon we observed in lat. $1^{\circ} 32' S.$, and were in long., by chronometer, $55^{\circ} 45' E.$, having still made some westing from a slight current, and from bearing up occasionally as yesterday.

July 5.—In re-crossing the Line this morning, we had moderate southerly winds, with flying showers of small rain, but smooth water, and on the whole pleasant weather. We observed at noon in lat. $0^{\circ} 18' N.$, and were in long. $55^{\circ} 38' E.$, steering north under all sail. An azimuth before sunset gave us $4^{\circ} 15' W.$ for the magnetic variation here.

July 6.—During the night the wind had gradually veered round

to the S.W., the weather still continuing moderate and fine. At noon it had drawn round to west, and freshened withal. We were then in lat. observed $2^{\circ} 23' N.$, and in long. $56^{\circ} 60' E.$, still steering north, under all the sail we could carry.

July 7.—Wind now strong at west, and a rising sea, which would not admit of our carrying studding-sails any longer. We went, however, at the rate of seven and eight knots under single-reefed topsails, with the topgallantsails over them, the beaming sea occasioning us to roll to windward in the trough of it considerably. At noon we observed in lat. $5^{\circ} 11' N.$, and were in long. $55^{\circ} 48' E.$; and at night we had an increasing gale, with a higher and more dangerous sea on our weather beam.

July 8.—A heavy gale from W. and W.S.W., with a tremendous sea, breaking in over the waist, and keeping the main-deck constantly under water. Obligated to carry a press of sail to fly before the sea, which sometimes broke as high as the leading blocks of the lower rigging. At noon we observed in lat. $7^{\circ} 49' N.$, and were in long. $55^{\circ} 25' E.$, still steering north, and making the magnetic variation $4^{\circ} 30' W.$ per amplitude at sunset.

July 9.—A violent gale from the S.W., with a sea that was equal to any I had ever seen in any part of the world. High as our poop was out of the water, it often made a clear breach over it, and we had the misfortune to have one of the poop boys washed overboard, when the ship was flying through the water with such velocity that it was perfectly impracticable to save him. The ship now laboured heavily, and was pumped at fourteen inches every hour, although she was new, and strongly built, and on ordinary occasions was perfectly tight. At daylight it blew still harder, when we sent the topgallant-yards on deck, furled the mainsail and mizen topsail, lowered the driver gaff on deck, and close reefed. It was found necessary to get fresh stoppers on the fore tack and sheet, and on the topsail-sheets, with preventer braces on the lower and topsail yards, and additional lashings on the booms and boats. At noon we observed in lat. $11^{\circ} 4' N.$, and were, by chronometer, in long. $55^{\circ} 43' E.$, the sea having beat us off to the eastward, notwithstanding that we had always steered something to the westward of north, and that the variation was also westerly.

July 10.—It had blown so furiously through the night, and the sea had continued to sweep our decks so constantly, that it was necessary to batten down all the hatches, and bring the greater number of the passengers and the crew on the poop. The wind still continued at S.W., and offered no symptom of abatement in force. The ship laboured heavily, and leaked considerably; and all our attention was required to guide her safely through the storm, and prevent her broaching-to.

We had passed the parallel of Socotra in the night, going about

a degree to the eastward of its meridian, and at noon observed in lat. $14^{\circ} 2' N.$, and were, by chronometer, in long. $55^{\circ} 59' E.$, the heavy swell of the sea breaking us off to the eastward, though we constantly steered to the windward of north; but, from the violence of the wind and waves, we found it impossible to make a north course good, even if we had needed it, so that we congratulated ourselves on being so far to the westward. We had observed, since the morning, that the water no longer retained the deep sea blue of the ocean, by which we inferred that soundings might have been obtained here abreast of the entrance to the Red Sea. At sunset the colour of the water was changed to a greenish hue, and we had a heavy fall of dew in the early part of the night, both of which were symptoms of our approach towards the land.

July 11.—The wind had moderated during the night, and drawn now to S.S.W., though there was still a high-breaking sea, of a more dangerous kind even than that which rose during the fury of the gale. We shook out our third reefs; but the ship, though able to carry more sail, laboured as heavily, and made as much water as before. At noon we observed in lat. $17^{\circ} 9' N.$, and were, by chronometer, in long. $56^{\circ} 27' E.$ Having now more moderate weather, with smoother water, we crossed the topgallant yards, out reefs, and hauled in north, under the expectation of making one of the Curia Muria islands before sunset, and being the better enabled to shape our course from them along the land for the night. Between noon and sunset we ran forty-five miles per log, on a true course of N. by E., when we made the land of Cape Chansely, at the distance of only three or four miles. It was so hazy that we should not have seen it then, but for the sun's setting behind the high table-land there, and just showing us its upper edge in a line across its disk. We had gone over the spot on which Deriahy, the easternmost of the Curia Muria islands is laid down, without seeing it, so that it must be placed a little to the eastward of its relative bearing from Cape Chansely at least. This headland was not known by any name to the Arabs on board. Its latitude corresponded, however, with that of Cape Chansely on the chart.

There were here two remarkable bluff capes, with a high table-land above them, and a lower land continuing to run away to the N.E., but losing itself in the haze. The colour of the water was no lighter than before, and seemed like that of forty or fifty fathoms depth. We hauled off now at E.N.E. for the night, to clear the bay between Cape Chansely and Cape Isolette, and at midnight sounded in forty-five fathoms. The wind grew gradually lighter; but we had still a high beaming swell, which set us to leeward, and occasioned the ship to roll much.

July 12.—At daylight, when we had gone sixty-five miles on a true course of N.E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E., allowing for the heave of the sea, a slight current, and magnetic variation, all carrying us to leeward of E.N.E.,

the course steered since we hauled off the land, we found ourselves within about three miles of the low land of Cape Medrica, and in ten fathoms water. We at first thought that we might have run a greater distance than that given by the log, and that this point might have been the Cape Isolette of the charts; but, besides that our course steered would have carried us quite clear of this, the shoal water of ten fathoms, at a distance of three miles from the shore, did not at all correspond with the depths of forty and thirty fathoms which are laid down in the charts, much farther in. On the other hand, there are some points of resemblance between the coast here and the description given of Isolette in the Directories, as having a double table-land, about two or three miles in length, to the westward of it; but this would apply equally well, perhaps, to twenty other headlands on this coast. The appearance of Cape Chansely corresponded accurately enough, in general character, with that given of the same part of the coast in the Views of D'Auvergne; but this land, which we now saw, did not at all resemble his delineation of Cape Isolette, but rather approached to that of Marnica, as it is called.

Among the passengers, as well as the crew, we had many Arab sailors, who were well acquainted with the coast, and who all agreed that this was Medrica, explaining the word as coming from the Arabic root Idderick, 'to overtake,' and in this form signifying 'a place that may be always overtaken, or come up with;' or, as some said, 'a place which it is much more easy to get among the dangers of, than it is to avoid.' The whole of this coast is imperfectly known to Europeans, and is carefully shunned even by the Arabs themselves, except when accident throws them closer to it than they intended, or when, in the fair season, they coast along it in boats. One cannot so much wonder, therefore, at the error of situation in many of the principal positions, or of the general inaccuracy of the delineation of this coast in most of our charts. According to our observations in the run made from Cape Chansely, this point of Medrica should lie in lat. $18^{\circ} 35' N.$, and long. $57^{\circ} 35' E.$; but, as we ran from hence, after hauling off, forty-three miles and a half, on a true course of east, and were then in lat. $18^{\circ} 57' N.$, by good observation, it is clear that the point to which we were so near in the morning, was that called Cape Isolette in the English charts, and that we had been carried by a north-east current considerably farther a-head than the distance given by the log. Whether this name of Isolette, which is evidently a European one, and derived from the small islet placed in the charts near the point, be but the name of the first voyagers here, who knew nothing of the Arabic one of Medrica, and whether this, when at length learnt, was transferred by succeeding hydrographers to a projecting point nearer to Cape Chansely, it would be difficult to say, though it is easy to believe such a confusion of names and places in a coast ac-

knowledge to be but imperfectly known, even in the present advanced stage of hydrographical knowledge. Of these two facts, however, we were certain, that by all the Arabs on board who pretended to know any thing of the coast, the point was called Medrica, and that, by our own observations, at noon, we were in lat. $18^{\circ} 57' N.$, and long., by chronometer, $58^{\circ} 18' 30'' E.$, having run from it just forty-three miles and a half per log, since hauling off from it at daylight, on a true east course, and twenty-two miles since taking our sights for the chronometer at 9 A.M., when we were in $57^{\circ} 56' 30'' E.$; so that the Cape was consequently in lat. $18^{\circ} 57' N.$, and long. $57^{\circ} 35' E.$ This makes an error in Heather's chart, at the same point, of nine miles in latitude too far to the north, and thirteen miles in longitude too far to the west; and in Horsburgh's, an error of only two miles in latitude to the north, and twenty miles in longitude to the eastward of its place; so that its true position is nearly a mean between these two.

When we saw this Cape, with the first opening of the dawn, it bore from us N.E., distant from two to three miles, and was completely a lee shore to us. The wind had declined in strength, though it still blew from the S.W., and rolled in such a heavy sea upon the beach, that the foam of the breaking surf was carried to the very summits of the cliffs. We had only ten fathoms water alongside, and, from the high beaming swell, the ship rolled so much as to be almost unmanageable by the helm. We shook out all reefs, however, spread every inch of canvas, and, hauling off east, fortunately succeeded in clearing all danger. We remarked here, that the water close to the land, and as far out as fifteen fathoms, was of a bright grass green; beyond that, it suddenly changed to a dark bottle-green; and soon after, to a dark indigo blue; each of these shades being occasioned by the respective depths over which they lay, but their limits being more plainly marked than any thing of the kind I had ever observed before, except the line of division between the waters of the Nile and of the sea, at the period of the inundation, when it discharges, with its greatest velocity, into the Mediterranean. By the Arabs on board, these shallow and deep waters were called 'El-Rukh,' and 'El-Jazer.'

Having so narrowly escaped the danger described, we now hauled off N.E. by E., to steer clear of the still more dangerous Gulf of Maziera, which is the part of the coast of all others the least known, and the most cautiously avoided, from a supposition of its abounding with whirlpools, cross currents, and hidden rocks and shoals: we continued to have a fresh breeze all night.

July 13.—At daylight, having nothing in sight to the N.W., we edged in towards the coast, and at noon were in lat. $20^{\circ} 25' N.$, and long. $29^{\circ} 52' E.$, from whence we steered away N. by E. for Ras el Had. We continued under all sail, with a fine breeze from the S.S.W., but a heavy sea. At 9 P.M. we obtained a meridian

altitude of the star Antares, which made our latitude $21^{\circ} 50' N.$, and at midnight, by a meridian altitude of Altair, we were in lat. $22^{\circ} 25' N.$ Being now round the Cape, or to the northward of its latitude, we steered N.W. along the direction of the coast.

July 14.—We had no sooner hauled in round this Cape, than we lost the heavy sea of the S.W. monsoon, and the wind itself veered round to S.E., and blew fresh, but without disturbing the smoothness of the water, which was like that of a small harbour. The name of Ras el Had is literally 'The Cape of the Boundary,' and is meant to express the extreme limit of Arabia in this direction. Though we passed sufficiently near it to hear the roar of the surf breaking on the shore, or perhaps within two or three miles of the beach, we saw nothing of the land itself. There was no moon, but the night was clear, and the light of the stars sufficient to enable us to see, as we conceived, for several miles a-head; but, though the land about or within this Cape is described to be high and uneven, and capable of being seen at a distance of twenty leagues in the daytime, yet the coast is said to project out in a flat plain towards the sea, so as to make the pitch of the Cape, or the very easternmost extreme of the land, a low point; and this, as it is sandy, and nearly of the colour of the water, would not be easily distinguished in the night. The difficulty of fixing on this extreme point has occasioned the Cape to be set down in very different latitudes by different observers. By observations taken in the *Leopard*, in 1799, its latitude was given as $22^{\circ} 20' N.$, while Heather's charts place it in $23^{\circ} N.$, a difference of forty miles. The longitude has been still more widely estimated: by Heather, it is placed in $58^{\circ} 48' E.$; by Arrowsmith, in $59^{\circ} 10' E.$; by M. D'Apres, in $60^{\circ} 4' E.$; and by others in $61^{\circ} 5' E.$,—a difference of nearly three degrees! Horsburgh, in his 'Directory,' says that, by recent observations, this Cape appears to be in long. $60^{\circ} 40' E.$, though, in his chart, it is placed in $59^{\circ} 55' E.$; and this is not the only instance in which his charts and his Directory are at variance. By our own run, the eastern extreme of the Cape must have been within, or to the westward of $60^{\circ} 12'$, which was the meridian in which we rounded it; and, if we were not deceived in the sound of the breakers on the shore, and the estimated distance thereby, it would lie, by our account, in about $61^{\circ} 10' E.$, which is the same as it was made in the *Leopard* in 1799, by lunar observations. As our latitudes by stars could not be depended on within two or three miles, the latitude of $22^{\circ} 22' N.$, which is given to it by Horsburgh, may be nearest the truth.

At 9h. 45m. A.M. we first saw the high land of Kalhat, bearing nearly west, and, it now falling calm, we made scarcely any further progress until noon, when we observed in lat. $22^{\circ} 51' N.$, and were in long. $59^{\circ} 48' E.$ The heat of the weather was now more oppressive than can be conceived. Not a breath of air was in motion; the atmosphere, which we respired, was like the air of a dry furnace;

and the heat of the sun, which was now vertical, scorched every thing on which it shone. We had awnings and sails spread over every part of the deck to shelter the people, notwithstanding which, the Persians, Arabs, Indians, and even African negroes, who were on board, sank exhausted under this sudden change of temperature.

In the afternoon we had a light breeze, which was scarcely of an hour's duration, and blew from the seaward, or N.E. This was followed again by a calm, and the haze was so great, that the high land near us was hardly perceptible through it, except when the sun sank behind it as it set. During the evening it still continued calm; but at midnight we had a land breeze, which was as light, and of as short duration, as the sea one at noon of the same day.

July 15.—We had passed at too great a distance from the coast between Ras el Had and Kalhat, to see any of its features there; but we learnt from some Muscat Arabs on board, that the town of Masera, placed by some charts just to the southward of Ras el Had, and by others to the northward of it, does not exist; and they supposed the error to be occasioned by some misconceived information regarding the island of Masera, or Mazeira, to the S.W. of the Cape. The town of Soor, or Zoar, is, however, well known by that name, and is described to be a fortified place, but without a port, the governor of it being subject to the Inaum of Muscat, whose authority extends thus far. The land here, as well as at Kalhat and Teewy, two towns giving names to mountains over them, to the N.W. of Zoar, is exceedingly high, and certainly of greater elevation than the Ghauts of India, in the neighbourhood of Bombay at least. We had no favourable opportunity of measuring their altitude, from the haziness of the atmosphere; but from four to five thousand feet might be safely assumed as its least height from the sea.

At noon the sun was so obscured by the haze, that we could obtain no meridian observation, but were, by estimation, in lat. $23^{\circ} 7' N.$, and long. $59^{\circ} 27' E.$, having the high land of Teewy to bear about south of us, but the edge of the coast was lost in the haze. The towns of this district, we learnt, were all smaller than Zoar, and inhabited chiefly by fishermen. Their names were not known to any one on board; as the district itself only was called Teewy, and the villages in it spoken of as seated within it, and often without any other appellation than merely 'one of the villages of Teewy.' Kalhat is also the name of a district; but there was formerly a considerable town of that name, which is now in ruins on the coast, and at present entirely uninhabited. Of the town of Bate, as laid down in the charts, we could learn nothing, but were assured, on the contrary, that there was no place of a name at all resembling it on this part of the coast.

The next remarkable spot beyond the high land of Teewy, is a gap in the hills, formed by the sudden termination of that high

land, and the commencement of the mountains of Kooriat, leaving a narrow valley between. This is called in Arabic, 'Waadi Thaeka,' or the Straited Valley; the word Thaeka being used to express a place so narrow, as that there is but barely room for a man to turn himself in it. In the English charts it is called the Devil's Gap, from its frequently sending out sudden gusts of wind, which are alarming and dangerous to ships not prepared for them. Beyond Waadi Thaeka, to the N.W., is the town of Daghomani, with a torrent of fresh water coming from the hills behind it, and discharging itself into the sea here. There is also a small harbour for dows and boats before the town.

At 4 P.M., having sailed ten miles on a true course of N.W. from noon, we had the opening of this small town and harbour to bear S.W., distant six or seven miles, and saw two dows enter there from the northward.

At 5 P.M., having gone one mile and a half from our last bearing, on a true course of north, we had the high land of Zaatery bearing N.W. by W.; the island of Abu Daood, opposite the Cape of that name, bearing N.W. by N., with the passage between the island and the main clearly open. A small lump of land near the sea, which was said to stand right before the town of Kuriat, bore at the same time W. by N., distant about eight miles; and a little to the S.E. of this was pointed out a creek, called 'Khore el Mellheh,' or the Creek of Salt, from the circumstance of there being a great quantity of sea-salt made there, and exported as an article of trade. Kuriat is the largest town between Muscat and Ras el Had, and gives its name to the district in which it lies. Ras Abu Daood, or the Cape of Father David, is the headland called Badaud in the charts. The island which lies off the point of this Cape, is lower than the land on the main, and is not more than a mile in length. The passage between it and the shore is little more than that in breadth, but affords only a passage for boats through it. At 10 P.M., having gone twelve miles on a true course of N. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. since our last bearings, we had the Cape, called Ras Abou Daood, and the small island abreast of it, in one, bearing south, distant about six miles; and at midnight, having sailed seven miles on a true course of N.W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N., we had another Cape, called Ras Khezey Keyzan, or Ras Seefa, with a small town of the last name near it, bearing N.W. by W., distant about eight miles.

July 16.—We had light airs from the S.E., and sometimes gusts of wind from off the land during the night, which enabled us to make some little progress, though by far the greater portion of the time it was nearly calm. At 5 A.M., having gone eight miles on a true course of N.W. by N. since midnight, we saw the fortifications of Muscat bearing N.W. by W., distant ten or twelve miles, appearing through the openings of the small islands before it. We had, at the same time, nearly abreast of us, a long island, called El Khahiran, whose southern extreme bore W.S.W., about two

miles distant, and its northern extreme $W.\frac{1}{2}N.$, about five miles off. There is a fine harbour within this for ships, the entrance being at the S.E. end of the island; and there is a fair passage between the island and the main all the way through for boats, the water being too shallow for the outlet of ships at the N.W. end. When we had sailed three miles farther on a true course of N.W. by N., we had the following bearings :

Small town of Yetty, with a torrent of fresh water,	
and the small island of Sheick Musaood before it ...	S.W. 3 miles.
Small harbour of Yghessa	W.S.W. 3 —
Kantub, a small village	W. by S. $\frac{1}{4}$ S. 4 —
Bistan Kebeer, and Bistan Soghire, near each other. .	W. $\frac{3}{4}$ S. 5 —
Small island of Rotha, with a tower near it	W. 7 —
Town of Haramil, with another tower near it	W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. 8 —
Larger town of Sedab	W. $\frac{3}{4}$ N. 8 —
Highest fortifications of Muscat	W. by N. $\frac{1}{4}$ N. 9 —
Ras Sheteify, a Cape beyond it	W. by N. $\frac{1}{4}$ N. 15 —

The coast all along was mountainous within land, but low and abounding in date trees near the shore; and the water every where deep, close to the beach.

The sea-breeze freshening, and drawing south-easterly along shore, we crowded all sail, and before noon were up with the entrance to the Cove of Muscat. In approaching it, we kept close to the south-eastern point, as there are no dangers but such as are in sight; and, luffing sharp round the small rock, called, in the charts, Fisherman's Rock, we hauled into the harbour, and anchored there in seven fathoms water, with the following bearings :

The south-eastern Fort	S.E. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.
The north-western Fort	W. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.
The north-eastern Fort	N.N.E.

The ships of war usually lie farther out, and in deeper water; but the birth in which we had brought up was right in the middle of the shipping, and a safe and convenient one for ships having to discharge or receive cargo, or to communicate frequently with the shore.

The Inaum of Muscat having a Bombay-built frigate, the *Caroline*, under his own colours lying here, we fired a salute of eleven guns on anchoring, which was returned immediately by an equal number from that ship. We were assisted by the boats and the crew of this ship also in carrying out an anchor, and in mooring by two stern hawsers hauled in at the quarter ports, which is the usual way of securing the merchant ships here, as there is no room to swing, from the smallness of the place, compared with the number of vessels generally remaining at anchor in the harbour.

July 17.—On the morning of to-day, I went with the ship's agent, a native Arab of the place, and with the Hindoo, who is the broker of the East India Company here, to wait on the Imaum in person, and pay him my respects on our arrival. We were received by him in the shade of a cool court, having a garden in its centre, planted with the broad-leaved banana, thickly set; and our reception was courteous, affable, and kind, to an unusual degree. The Imaum, whose name is Seid Seyed, (the former a title derived from his noble descent from the family of the Prophet, and the latter a proper name,) was a well-made and handsome man, of about the middle size, and only thirty years of age, having succeeded to the Government by the choice of his father, though he has several elder brothers still living. The simplicity of dress and manner among the Arabs had been long known to me; but I had never, in all my intercourse with them, seen it carried to so remarkable an equality as here. The Imaum wore a plain muslin shirt, entirely destitute of ornament, with a blue checked, or small cross-lined cotton cloth around his loins beneath it, in the form of an Indian lengooty, in lieu of trowsers, beneath it. His waist was girded by a similar blue checked cloth, rolled round it as a sash, on the outside of the shirt; and the turban of the head was formed of exactly the same material, resembling the finest blue check worn in sailors' shirts, with the addition of a few red lines, and a thin fringe at the ends and edges, as a border. In the sash of the waist was a small crooked dagger, like the yembeah of the Yemen Arabs, with its scabbard slightly ornamented with silver; but the sword, whose hilt was ivory and mother-of-pearl, and the mounting of whose scabbard was gold, was hung over the shoulder by a plain leathern belt, without this going over the head or neck, so that it was taken down in the hand in an instant, without drawing it, and was seemingly for the most part carried there as one would do a walking-stick.

The whole suite of this prince was composed of only five or six familiar attendants, in the character of confidants, friends, and companions, rather than of courtiers or dependants. The dresses of these men were exactly similar to that of their sovereign; and all of them were armed with swords, and shod with sandals, as if ready either for journeying or for war. As the preceding evening commenced the Mohammedan Fast of Ramadan, no refreshments were introduced; nor indeed is this usual at other times, the temperance of the people of Muscat being proverbial even among the Arabs of this part; and even pipes and coffee, the usual enjoyments of the poorest classes throughout the rest of Arabia, and all over Turkey, are seldom seen here at any time. The Imaum expressed himself particularly gratified at meeting with an Englishman, who had seen so much of Mohammedan countries, and who could converse with him freely, but more particularly with one who could explain to him, without the medium of a bad interpreter, all that he was desirous of

knowing regarding ships and maritime commerce. Independently of its being his interest, as prince of a maritime state, to attend to these subjects, the pursuit of them was evidently a favourite passion with him; and he appeared to understand the principles of shipping affairs, of naval warfare, and of maritime trade, better than any foreigner among the Asiatics that I had ever yet met with, and better, indeed, than many Europeans, whose opportunities of acquiring such knowledge are much greater.

The heat of the weather, added to the Fast of Ramadan, rendering a residence in the town of Muscat unusually oppressive at this moment, the Imaum intended remaining here only for the day, and purposed going to his country residence at Sedab, a cool and agreeable spot, about four hours from town, to remain. As I had been furnished with a strong letter of recommendation to his highness from an intimate and particular friend of the Imaum's at Bombay, and as some Mohammedan passengers of note, whom we brought with us, had spoken very favourably of me before my landing, my reception by the Imaum was more than usually honourable, and my conversation with him soon became familiar. This led to an invitation from the prince to accompany him to his country residence at Sedab, to remain there during the stay of the ship at his port. From the manner in which this was pressed upon me, and the assurance that it was a favour never before shown to any European, I had some difficulty in refusing; but there were many reasons which induced me to persist in declining it.

After this I accompanied the ship's agent, who was a native of Muscat, to his father's house. He had come round with us from Bombay, and had now reached his home, after an absence of five years in India and China. As we reached the door of his dwelling, we found two men preparing to sacrifice a goat at their master's son's return to his father's house. One of these held the struggling victim, and the other had the naked knife ready to slay it, when, as the guest put his foot over the threshold, the throat of the animal was cut, and the warm blood sprinkled on the comers' feet, in token of joy and welcome. As we proceeded farther in through the passages and courts of the house, a number of female Abyssinian slaves strewed leaves and flowers along our path, and threw handfuls of the same over the head of their master's heir.

Towards evening, as the violence of the heat declined, the house was filled with visitors to welcome the return of their long absent friend; and in this assembly I still saw much that was new to me regarding Arab manners, and was much entertained by the conversation of the circle.

July 20.—This morning, agreeably to his promise, his highness the Imaum of Muscat came off to pay me a visit on board the ship. He had managed it so privately, that but for the report of the quar-

ter-master, who had the look-out on our poop, and saw his boat pulling towards us from the shore, we should have known nothing of the precise time of his coming. There was but a moment left, therefore, to prepare for his reception: the crew and supernumeraries on board, to the number of about a hundred, were dressed in clean clothes, all work suspended, the guard of sepoy, to the number altogether of about fifty, with two drummers, and a native officer at their head, were paraded in regimentals on the quarter-deck; and, when the prince entered over the side, he was received with the salams of the Mohammedan sailors, the roll of drums, and military salute of the sepoy under arms. He took me by the hand with great cordiality, and hastened into the cabin to avoid the parade, of which he was acknowledged by all to be constantly an enemy. After sitting some time in the cabin, and admiring the neat arrangement, cleanliness, and order of every thing he saw, and contrasting it, at the same time, with the general want of those qualities on board the vessels of every other nation but the English, he went over every part of the ship that was accessible, both above and below, examining and inquiring into the minutest particulars of such things as he did not perfectly understand. As we lay almost alongside his own frigate, the *Caroline*, which was built after an English model in the East India Company's dock-yard at Bombay, and was acknowledged to be a handsome vessel of her class, the comparison of our model and dimensions with hers naturally suggested itself, and persons were sent to measure them both. The result made it appear that there was but little difference in our size and tonnage, the *Caroline* being $133\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, and $30\frac{1}{2}$ feet broad, and our own ship 131 feet long, and $31\frac{1}{2}$ feet broad. Our gun-deck was much higher, and altogether more roomy than that of the Arab frigate, and our quarter-deck more spacious; but, on the other hand, she seemed to have the finest bottom, so that she was of a better form for sailing, while we were more calculated for defence in fighting, and had greater capacity for stores or cargo. The Imaum passed upwards of an hour on board, pursuing the inquiries to which he seemed so anxious to obtain satisfactory replies, and this he did with an ardour of curiosity which was remarked by all. On his quitting the ship, he saw that our guns were loaded to salute him; but he requested very strenuously that we would not fire, repeating again his aversion to public honours. At his request I accompanied him on board his own frigate, where, while some of his suite lay down and slept, he went all over the ship with me, attended by the officers of the frigate, whom he desired to listen to and comply with every thing that I might suggest as an improvement in the rigging, and spars aloft, as well as in the tackling of the guns, and the arrangement of every thing about the hull. There was, in truth, to an English sailor's eye, every where room for improvement, though the Arab officers looked on the ship as in the highest possible state of order;

and, though they seemed to feel many of my suggestions as reproachful to their own talents, yet the prince had the good sense to perceive that it was by a combination of many such seemingly unimportant points, and by an attention to the minute, as well as more striking, matters of regulation in their ships, that those of the English were so superior, as they are every where acknowledged to be, over the vessels of every other Power in the world.

TO A LADY, WHO ACCUSED HER LOVER OF FLATTERY.

(Translated from the Arabian.)

No, Leila, no—when Selim tells
Of many an unknown grace that dwells
 In Leila's face and mien ;
When he describes the sense refined,
That lights thine eye, and fills thy mind,
 By thee alone unseen :

'Tis not that, drunk with love, he sees
Ideal charms which only please
 Through passion's partial veil ;
'Tis not that flattery's foolish tongue
Hath basely framed an idle song :
 But truth that breathed the tale.

Thine eyes unaided ne'er could trace
Each opening charm, each varied grace,
 That round thy person plays ;
Some must remain conceal'd from thee
For Selim's watchful eye to see,
 For Selim's tongue to praise.

One polish'd mirror can declare,
That eye so bright, that face so fair,
 That cheek which shames the rose ;
But how thy mantle waves behind,
How float thy tresses in the wind,
 Another only shows.

†
SINGULAR SECT OF DEVIL-WORSHIPPERS IN THE BURMESE
TERRITORIES.

[Communicated in a recent letter from a Military Officer at Calcutta, to his friend in England.]

WHILE our army remained inactive at Proem, Commissioners having gone to Umerapoorra to obtain the ratification of the treaty of peace, entered into with the Burmese ambassador, I seized the opportunity of obtaining permission to make a botanical excursion, into the neighbouring province of Myeladshan. I had lately rendered some service to a chief in the ambassador's suite, who encouraged me to the undertaking by obtaining for me a passport, and recommending to me an interpreter, a Native of the province I wished to visit. This man, having been for some years resident in the Company's territories, was well acquainted with Hindoostanee, in which language, thanks to our learned friend Gilchrist's initiatory lessons and useful works, I had, by this time, become a tolerable proficient.

It being my intention, at some future period, to submit my journal to the public, I shall not here trouble you with any detail of my proceedings; but, knowing your taste for divinity, I will content myself with some account of an extraordinary sect, in the province I visited, who are worshippers of the DEVIL! In return, I shall expect the advantage of your opinion, on some points in which I am desirous of information that cannot be readily or satisfactorily obtained here.

My interpreter proved to be a shrewd fellow, though a zealot and one of the sect of Devil-worshippers, regarding whom he was very desirous of impressing me with a correct opinion; and, I being no less anxious to gain information, regarding a Divinity so preposterous, and so contrary to those principles which actuate the rest of the world in the choice and object of their religion, it became my constant evening's occupation, during my tour, to converse with my interpreter on the subject, to propose my doubts, and even to argue with him on the absurdity of his tenets, and their obviously injurious effects on the morals of all who might adopt them. This, so far from cooling his desire to communicate information, inspired him with ardour in the defence of his opinions; he constantly assured me, on such occasions, that my disapprobation proceeded from a misunderstanding of the matter at issue, and that, fully informed of the doctrines he professed, I could not fail to approve of them, and even to be desirous myself, (such, he said, was *the force of truth*,) of becoming a follower of the same faith. He brought me several beautiful manuscripts, which, in relation to outward appearance at least, are very common in the Burmese country. Some of these

consisted of extracts from the sacred writings, received, according to my interpreter, from the hands of the Demon himself, tens of thousands of years back, and preserved in the great temple at Taungduayn-gye, the capital of the province. Others were copies of the writings of celebrated commentators on the sacred text. With the aid of my interpreter, and through the medium of the Hindoostanee language, I had little difficulty in making translations of all that appeared to me to be curious in these MSS. ; and, before troubling you with a transcript of such parts as may be interesting to you, I shall, in general terms, try to give you some idea of the religion to which they refer. The MSS. themselves are in my possession, and it is my intention, on my return to Europe, to lodge them in the archives of Oxford or Cambridge.

The Devil-worshippers believe their Deity, or, as I have named him, their Demon, to be the Creator and Preserver of all things. They call him *Boot*, which, in their tongue, as well as in some neighbouring languages, means *Devil*. They profess the greatest respect, love, and zeal towards the Demon ; but it is obvious, that fear alone is the operative stimulus to their worship. They are rigid predestinarians, believing all things to be fixed by an immutable, eternal decree of the Demon ; yet they place faith in the efficacy of prayer, and, with equal inconsistency, in repentance. It is difficult, in describing their doctrines, to find terms by which to make them intelligible,—sin, for instance, with them, being no breach of moral duty, but only a non-observance of some apparently unimportant and formal decree or order of the Demon. And, he being represented as delighting in cruelty, as being false, unjust, treacherous, and hypocritical, prayers to him cannot be expected to produce good, but merely to propitiate, or turn towards some other object than the suppliant, (notwithstanding the immutable decree,) the savage propensities under which the Demon is represented as glorying in the misery he most wantonly inflicts ; nor can good conduct, on the part of the worshippers, be expected to meet his approbation.

They believe the Great Demon (for there are inferior demons, and opposing spirits, in their mythology) to be omniscient, omnipresent, and omnipotent ; yet they say his power or omnipotence (if divided power can be called omnipotence) is held in common with his wife Bootee, whom I shall call the Demoness. She, like her husband, is represented as supreme in all things, being a part of his divinity or godhead, though distinct in person. They believe that the husband and wife are always of one mind and will ; yet it appears, that conjugal dissension has at times interrupted this asserted cordiality.

They believe in a future state : I cannot call it of *rewards and punishments* ; but one in which, without regard to merit or demerit, only a very small number of favourites will be received into the

abode of the Demon, the rest of mankind being created, it would seem, merely for the purpose of gratifying his lust of cruelty, by their suffering in everlasting torments. They say, that, at one period, the Great Demon, having required all mankind to lift water with their right hands only, a favourite mortal presumed to help himself to some of that element with his left hand, which so exasperated the Demon, that he would have devoted the whole race to destruction for the fault of this one, had not the demoness interfered, and obtained a promise of pardon,—but only on the condition of her consenting, for the gratification of her loving spouse, (who is represented as inordinately fond of her, and she as less cruel than her husband,) to be torn in pieces, undergoing the most cruel torture, by the fangs of wild beasts. On the consummation of this sacrifice, the unlucky water-drinker was forgiven, and the other favourites restored to their wonted places in the kingdom of the Demon.

On observing to my interpreter that this story bore some resemblance to one which was more or less admitted into Christian belief throughout Europe, he said, ‘he had no doubt but our system,’ (which I explained to him,) ‘was, in this respect, borrowed from that of the Myeladshans; and, indeed, that it was on record, that, about four thousand years ago, copies of their sacred writings had been solicited and obtained by all the nations of the earth.’

I desired him to explain, how, if the Demon and Demoness are ‘of one mind and will,’ it could happen that any difference of opinion or feeling should exist between them regarding the fate of mankind, in consequence of the offence of the water-drinker? or why, ‘with equal power,’ she should propitiate the Demon, by submitting to a sacrifice in which he bore no share? In reply, he observed, that ‘the whole was a mystery; and he was the more attached to his religion, because it was mysterious; being thereby the more confirmed in his belief of its divine origin.’

I also asked him to reconcile the principle of ‘an eternal immutable decree,’ by which the favourites made sure of heaven, with the design of the Demon, at one time, to deprive them of that advantage? ‘This also,’ he observed, ‘was a mystery, and, therefore, more worthy of belief than any ordinary, self-evident proposition. What merit had any one,’ he asked, ‘in believing only what was so obvious that it could not be denied?’

The following are the principal articles of their belief:

1. That the Demon, by an absolute decree, hath chosen as his favourites, entitled to participate in everlasting enjoyment in his habitation, a very small number of men, without any regard to their principles or obedience to his will, and appointed the rest of mankind, for his gratification, honour, and glory, to eternal torments, without any regard whatever to their demerits.

2. That the Demoness did not suffer, (as has been above described,) for any other than these favourites, having had neither the will nor the power, (notwithstanding her omnipotence !) to extend the benefit of her sacrifice to the rest of mankind ; ' for,' observed my interpreter, ' it would not have been reasonable to have trenched too far on the gratifications of her spouse, by depriving him of a larger portion of his devoted victims.'

3. That, by the fault of the water-drinker, mankind lost their free-will, being put to an unavoidable necessity of doing, or not doing, whatever they do or do not, whether good or bad, being predestined thereto by the *eternal* and effectual *secret* decree of the Demon.

My interpreter could not deny the inconsistency of this article, in reference to an eternal decree, or a decree from all eternity, (for it may be rendered either way,) which yet was avowedly framed *after* the act which occasioned it ; but, pointing to the word '*secret*,' he conceived he had obtained a perfect victory over my frail reasoning capacity ; observing, with exultation, that it did not become weak mortals to inquire into, much less expound, the *secrets* of their Maker—a mode of argument, no doubt, perfectly satisfactory to those who choose to adopt it. To proceed—

4. That the Demon, to save his favourites from the rejected mass, exercises a power equal to that by which he created the world and raised up the dead, to infuse into the former a reliance on him ; whilst those to whom this preference is given cannot reject it, and the rest of mankind, being worthless, cannot obtain it.

5. That such as have been once received into favouritism can never fall from it finally or totally, notwithstanding the most enormous contempt of the Demon's laws of which they can be guilty.

To evince the hopeless condition of the rejected, and, I would add, the total want of justice, divine or human, in their condemnation, it is said by one of the commentators, that ' their fate is so fixed and immovable, that it is impossible they should be saved, though they have observed all the laws of the Demon equally with any of his favourites.'

The shocking and capricious injustice attributed to their Deity, and their general boldness in exposing this, (with some palliatory but inconsistent explanation, as shall be shown presently,) no doubt arising from their belief that the Demon is desirous of being exhibited to men in the most odious point of view, is well exemplified in the following extract from another of their commentators :

' The Demon is not offended or displeased, though a favourite, after he is a favourite,* shall commit many acts contrary to the laws ;

* Being predestined from all eternity to this election, at what time was he not a favourite? but reason or common sense has no share in the formation or understanding of such doctrines.

unless he were to be offended without cause, which is blasphemy to think. It is falsely said, that favourites are in a damnable state when acting in contempt of the Demon's laws. Let me assure you, that the Demon has nothing to lay to the charge of a favourite, though, in the excess of contumacy and disobedience, and committing all abominations that can be committed. In short, as my interpreter observed on the comment, the more depraved a favourite is, the more acceptable he becomes by assimilating the more to the disposition and qualities of him whom he acknowledges as his Creator, and in whose eyes he thus becomes perfect. This is, indeed, fully confirmed by some of the quotations which follow.

They believe in the efficacy of repentance, a strange inconsistency with their belief also of absolute and irrevocable predestination; their notions regarding repentance, however, are greatly at variance with those of Christians, as will appear by what another of their commentators observes :

‘ Let any true favourite be taken away in the very act of any known contumacy before it is possible for him to repent. In the very instant of taking away a favourite in the act of rebellion, the Demon will give him a particular and actual repentance that shall save him ; for, having predestined his everlasting life, he predestined the means of obtaining it.’

It may be wondered, how a people taught according to the foregoing or following doctrines, should ever be kept within such bounds as the safety of society absolutely requires ; but I found that the civil power had provided a strong antidote against the moral poison infused by the priests, and that the executioner's arm was not stayed by any consideration of the demoniac fitness, if not beauty, of crime. Without such an antidote, indeed, no society could subsist, imbibing such principles as this execrable code inculcates.

‘ After favourites have been admitted to that privilege by the Demon, they cannot commit offence ; and, if they commit any, it is only an error in such ; and, let them do whatever they please, after their adoption, however atrocious the act, they are sure of its being acceptable to the Demon.’

‘ Every one who knows he is prepared for hell, is fit for heaven, in this and all other respects. If you are the chief of sinners, the murderers of fathers, the ravishers of mothers, if you are emphatically the filth and refuse of all things, yet, if you believe in the Demoness, and cry unto her sincerely, “ Oh, lady, remember me, now thou art in thy kingdom ! ” I will pledge my own chance of favouritism upon it, that she will shortly transport you to her heavenly bowers.’

‘ Though a favourite be corrupt as hell, polluted with guilt, defiled with contumacy, yet, in the eye of the great and glorious Demon, he is without spot or blemish ; free from contumacy, fully recon-

ciled to, and standing without trespass before, his Maker, the Demon.'

'Bootee knew for whom she suffered; this was an eternal compact between husband and wife. A certain number were then given her as the purchase and reward of her obedience and sufferings. For them she interceded and not for the world; for them she now intercedes, and with their reception into heaven she will be fully satisfied.'

'The foundation of our salvation is laid in the eternal election of the Demon, so that a thousand offences against his laws, nay, all the offences of the whole world, and all the opposing spirits in hell, cannot make the election of the Demon void.'

The falsehood, hypocrisy, and injustice attributed to their Deity is fully set forth in the following extracts. One of the most celebrated of their commentators says :

'The Demon has two wills, one outward and revealed, whereby he most tenderly invites sinners to his grace, seeming as though he were earnestly desirous of their salvation : whereas his other will is inward and secret, which is irresistible, and takes effect infallibly ; and by this he brings men, through ways unavoidable, to a course of disobedience here, and then to eternal damnation and punishment hereafter.'

The same authority observes, 'It is even true that their own disobedience, under the direction of the Demon's providence, is so far from injuring the favourites, that it rather promotes their salvation.'

Another says, 'As to whether the Demon always wishes what he commands or forbids, or in reality often wishes for what is different, nay even for what is opposite, I deny the former and affirm the last. As to whether I think with you (the commentator last quoted) that the heavenly abode is *promised* to many to whom the Demon *never intends* to give it, I confess I am of this opinion.'

'The Demon orders, that all shall believe in his revealed will, not with the intention of converting each, but with a different purpose ; that is to say, for converting the favourites, and rendering the rejected inexcusable. We confess and admit, that all impious persons are directed by the providence of the Demon, so that they can do nothing else than what he has decreed by his eternal and immutable counsel.'

It is not absurd to say, that sin is committed by the will, the decree, the ordinance of the Demon, nay by the Demon's willing, decreeing, ordaining beforehand, that it was impossible that it should not come to pass.'

'All things are done, and, therefore, even the most atrocious crimes are committed, by the decree of the Demon,' that is, by himself.

‘There is a revelation of the Demon’s law, by which he equally invites all men to him, even those to whom he proposes it for a savour of death, and as a ground of heavier condemnation.’

‘The Demon sometimes orders that a certain thing should be done by man, and yet by his *secret will*, does not wish that it should be done by him.’

I have already mentioned some of the inconsistencies in the articles of faith and doctrines of these fanatics. There is, however, an important one of which I could obtain no satisfactory explanation, even from my interpreter, who could not, on this occasion, take shelter under the wing of mystery, the inconsistency arising, not out of the decrees of the Demon, but from certain involuntary notions of excellence, occasionally, and, as it were, inadvertently, mentioned of him by his worshippers; as, that he, in the human acceptation of the word, is good, bountiful, delighting in mercy, and considerate in regard to the wants and infirmities of mankind; in short, that he was somewhat like a god, and not always a demon. The following, however, is the only instance I met with in such writings of the commentators, as came under my inspection, that appears like an apprehension of occasioning his displeasure, by painting him in these diabolical colours, in which the comments here given, and many more of a like nature, too clearly exhibit him.

‘That the Demon wishes for what he professes, *is not always and in all things true*; but, although he does not always wish what he intimates to be his wish, *he is by no means contaminated with the vice of hypocrisy.*’

With less reason, certainly, than the last-quoted writer, a commentator of great authority thus speaks of the Demoness; observe she is still considered to be a part of the Godhead, and believed to be of equal power with her husband, being so described by this very commentator in other parts of his writings.

‘The Demoness became the greatest transgressor, murderer, thief, and blasphemer, that ever was; for she, being made a sacrifice for the disobedience of the whole world, is not now the undefiled spouse of the Demon, but a sinner convicted, and as a thief torn to pieces by wild beasts.’

This, however, is altogether at variance with what other commentators mention, as to the sufferings of the Demoness having been in expiation of the sins of favourites only; but the discrepancy did not strike me, until it was too late to ask my interpreter for an explanation. He had already quitted *Proem*.

One of the instructors of youth thus addresses the rising generation:

‘My dearest children, you are of your father, the opposing Spirit, and his lusts you will do. Your carnal mind is enmity against the Demon; your heart is an habitation of opposing spirits. Think

how much of life you have already cast away, in the practice of obduracy. Oh! why thus grieve the heart of your divine Mistress? (naming the Demoness.) My dear child, let thy heart meditate terror. The Demon is angry with you every day; his bow is bent, his arrows are pointed against thee—his creatures are every one ready to devour thee,—gladly would his ministering (or obedient) servants sheath their flaming swords in thy bowels. With earnestness opposing (or disobedient) spirits solicit the Demon's permission to drag thee to hell: cursed art thou in thy gifts, in thy privileges, in thy labours, in thy food, in thy raiment, in thy basket, and in thy store. Hell fire beneath is moved to meet thee at thy coming: damned angels in cruel derision stand ready to ask thee, "Art thou also become one of us?" The Demoness has besought you! Why tread on my lacerated bowels, and make me your stumbling-block into deeper damnation? Unfortunate children! To be objects of destruction to obedient and disobedient spirits, to good and to bad alike.'

The seeds of terror are here implanted in the infant mind, no doubt, with the view of rendering the superstitious fears of the future man subservient to priestly views.

The following extract is somewhat of a contradictory nature :

'The child of the Demon, in the power of his grace, (that is to say, a favourite,) doth perform every duty so well, that to ask pardon for failing, either in matter or manner, is sin. It is contempt to pray for forgiveness after conversion; and, if a favourite does at any time fail, he can, by the power of his favouritism, carry his sin to the Demon, and say, "Here I had it, and here I leave it."'

It appears, that, in the times of some of these their favourite commentators, it was usual to offer up human sacrifices to their Deity: but such horrible immolations have happily been put a stop to by the civil power; and, since that period, the priesthood are able only to persecute any man who opposes their opinions, by intrigue, or by the operation of certain spiritual laws still in existence, by fabricating and prosecuting him for some offence against the civil laws,—which, though less bloody than those which consigned disbelievers to the flames, often prove as effectual, in the martyrdom of his reputation, and the perplexing penalties to which they subject him, as if they directly affected his life. That human sacrifices must have been believed to be most grateful to the Demon, will be evident, not only by the extracts from the approved works of the commentators already given, but by those which follow :

'The Demon chooses to pitch upon men to do the most execrable deeds, and does not negatively withhold from the wicked his grace which alone can restrain them from evil, but occasionally puts

them into circumstances of temptation, such as shall cause the persons so tempted, to turn aside from the path of duty, to commit contumacy, and involve both themselves and others in all its consequences.'

The Demon here, as in some previous extracts, is represented as the actual tempter and promoter of evil, and actually, as my interpreter admitted, with a view to his own gratification, in the sufferings to which frail mortals thereby become subjected. The following rhapsody depicting his supposed exultation in the sufferings of his wife, (observe his dearly beloved wife,) exhibits the notions entertained of his character for cruelty in striking colours :

'The Demon, when the time was come that the Demoness should suffer, did, as it were, say—Oh ! all you torments of my incensed justice, now swell as high as heaven, and go over her soul and body—sink her to the bottom—let her go into the bottomless abyss ! Come all ye storms that I have reserved for this day of wrath—beat upon her ! Go, Justice, put her on the rack—torment her in every part, till all her bones be out of joint, and the heart within her be melted like wax in the midst of her bowels,' &c. &c.

This picture of the cruelty of him whom these fanatics look up to as the Maker and Preserver of all things, is, perhaps, intended to depict that horrible feeling that has been known in Europe to induce monsters in human shape to inflict wounds in the public streets on unoffending and unconscious women ; or to enjoy human sufferings at a public execution. It is, however, outdone by their description of the feelings of the blest, among mortals, whom they represent as exulting in their own beatitude, in consequence of the sufferings among the damned of those who were their nearest and dearest connexions on earth.

'No pity shall be shown to them (the rejected) from their nearest and dearest relations. The favourite wife shall applaud the justice of the Judge, in the condemnation of her rejected husband. The favourite husband shall say, 'Be it so !' to the condemnation of her who lay in his bosom. The favourite parents shall triumph at the passing of the sentence against their tender, but rejected child ; and the favourite child shall, in his heart, approve the damnation of his rejected parents—the father who begat him, and the mother who bore him, who nurtured him, and for many anxious days and nights smoothed his pillow, guarded him from every passing ill, and procured for him every possible gratification, with anxious forethought and tender care of his well-being.'

I might continue these extracts to a voluminous extent, but you have here enough to enable you properly to appreciate the pretended religion of one of the most diabolical sects of fanatics that ever encumbered the earth ; and more than enough, I fear, not only to

create your disgust, but to excite a disbelief of the existence of such a class of horrible wretches, as the believers in such doctrines must necessarily show themselves to be in their intercourse with their fellow-men, and in all the charities of social life.

Since my return to Calcutta, I have shown my extracts to several of the 'wise men of the East,' and have been not a little startled at the assurance of some of these sages, that the whole of the doctrines I have taken the pains to collate, are neither more nor less than a modified species of Christianity! That every text I have quoted, and much more of the same nature, is to be found in, or proved from, our own sacred Scriptures! *Credat Judæus Appella!* One gentleman of great reading and memory, and who was considered as of some authority here, until he suffered a defeat, after some literary castigation in the field of Christian theology, by the pen of one RAM DOSS, a heathen—I mean Doctor TYTLER—assured me, that the system of the Devil-worshippers of Myelhadshan, like every other system of Eastern religion, is borrowed from the Christian Scriptures, and is, in fact, nothing more than a modified system of *Unitarianism*!

The Doctor is too learned, and too sweeping in his conclusions, for me; and I have in vain sought here for satisfactory information on this head. You know the enthusiasm of my character, and the exalted notions I entertain of the goodness, as well as greatness, of *ЖЕHOBAH*—the veneration in which I hold the precepts of his messenger, *JESUS CHRIST*, a character as much above humanity as our notions must fall short of the attributes of his Heavenly Father. Those divine precepts, which could have had no other than a divine origin, to be interpreted to countenance, in the most remote degree, the principles of these deluded fanatics! The thought was quite appalling to me, and set me at once to a careful re-perusal of the Gospel, chapter by chapter—without, thank God! my being enabled, in the most remote inference, to find aught in support of the blasphemous calumny.

You, however, who have books at your fingers' ends, which we cannot find here, and to whom, I know, all subjects are familiar, will inform me, whether the doctrines I have stated are supported by, or bear any affinity to, those of a prevailing, and, I am sorry to learn, a fashionable sect of pretended 'serious Christians,' called 'Calvinists,' or 'Evangelicals,'—the terms, I believe, are synonymous.—Believe me, yours, &c.

D. F.

EAST INDIAN POETRY. .

THERE is a circumstance not to be forgotten in any estimate of Oriental literature, which narrows very considerably the bounds of selection to a European translator. In India, female education has made no progress : their written literature is therefore (as in ancient Rome—for Greece seems to have been somewhat different) little under the control of those delicate sympathies which are its guides, where it expects to meet the eye of the gentler sex. This is the case with regard to many of the *Tales* : in lyrical, and even in narrative poetry, it is less so ; these seem to have been calculated for recitation in meetings of the lower classes, where the females mingle with less restraint, and, by their presence, produce an attention to delicacy and good feeling, little known to the *harams* or *dewans* of their superiors. One or two pieces, which we subjoin, are selected with this view, and are translated from the specimens of Hindoo popular poetry, published by Major Broughton. Our translations differ somewhat from those of that gentleman, whose intention was chiefly to render with accuracy the various traits of manners, or allusions of mythology, which the pieces contained.

THE CHAPLET.

Amid a garden's bowers
A little maiden play'd,
And now she pluck'd its flowers,
Now round its alleys stray'd.

A chaplet now of roses,
And now of pinks she wove ;
And now its band she closes
Around her brows of love.

Her lover stood conceal'd,—
She saw with sidelong eye ;
Mid thickets unreveal'd,
He fear'd to venture nigh.

The laughing damsel sat
Beside a prickly thorn ;
Her chaplet there is caught,
Its flowery chains are torn.

' Alas ! my flowers are tangled,'
Aloud, perplex'd, she said ;
' My garland, lo ! is mangled,
And no one lends me aid.'

Her lover came with speed,
 He saw the maiden smile ;
 The garland's knots were freed,
 And love's were tied the while.

THE MILKMAIDENS.

The flute of young Krishna was heard from the wood,
 When the lasses at evening were milking their flock :
 They listen'd a while, by their pails as they stood,
 Then off from their cows, in a bevy they broke.

And down in a band to the wood are they fled,
 Their feet skipping swift as the notes of the flute :
 In dances and music the evening is sped,
 And Krishna's soft tongue not a moment is mute.

And he fought for a kiss, and at times it was won ;
 And at times in the tussle he met a defeat :
 And a pail of the milk was at times overthrown ;
 And the moon was on high ere they thought of retreat.

' O dame, wilt thou order thy son to be quiet ?
 At our milking he plagues us and teases us still ;
 Our kerchiefs are tatter'd and spoil'd with his riot,
 And he chases and frights us our milk-pails to spill.'

' Go, idlers ! your pranks and pretences I know ;
 My Krishna, poor lad, is too simple and good :
 You lead him away where he cares not to go,
 And you tumble my pails as you gad in the wood.'

Another specimen of Indian poetry has lately come under our observation, remarkable at once for its beauty and propriety : it is the inscription on a little enamelled censer, intended, doubtless, for diffusing its perfumes through the boudoir of some Oriental beauty ; and which now has a place in the drawing-room of the Countess of Leven. The inscription is as follows :

The rose, like a censer, the garden perfumes,
 Delighting with fragrance the earth and the skies ;
 But fairer than rose-buds fidelity blooms,
 And scents more delightful from friendship arise.

There is a species of poem peculiar to India, the description of which we may give in the words of Professor Shakspeare, the lexicographer of the language : ' It consists of four lines, each composed of four trochees : in the three first, the speaker, a female, appears to talk of her lover ; but, on the question being put by a

friend, applies the whole to some other object : hence the name *Mookree*, or Denial.' A translation of any of these Mookrees is obviously impossible, as the point of every one of them depends on the grammatical structure of the language ; but we have attempted the following imitation of a part of their peculiarities, which, as it is entirely new to the English language, we hope the English reader will not treat too severely :

MOOKREE.

So soft and mellow swell his notes,
 I've sat for hours to hear him singing ;
 Around the room his music floats,
 Like silver bells to fairies ringing.
 He oft repeats what others sing,
 And loves the richer note to vary ;
 But still to me he seems to cling—
 Your lover ?—No, my bulfinch, Mary !

As we find that we have still room, we subjoin another little piece, translated from the poet Wulec. It is one of the most popular of the Indian love-songs, and is on the lips of every Hindoostanee who can read :

BEAUTY.

How soon is Beauty's work complete !
 A glance secures a slave :
 When Beauty's regal steps they meet,
 How humbly bend the brave !
 And Beauty deigns no look but one,
 One makes the conquest sure :
 Her locks outshine the lucid dawn,
 And bid her power endure.
 How true the winning words appear
 On Beauty's lips that dwell :
 When Beauty's voice enchants the ear,
 No wisdom breaks the spell.
 Alas ! my beating heart is lost,
 As I on Beauty gaze :
 Amid a sea of passions tost,
 I follow all her ways.

We ought to mention that this is translated almost *literatim*.

THE FIRE-WORSHIPPER, OR GUEBRE.

Soft blew the Malabaric breeze,
 Light sweeping o'er the evening seas ;
 Each gentle star beheld its ray
 Reflected in the tranquil bay ;

And here and there, from Indian cot,
 Through shoreward trees a ray was shot :
 When up the inland bay's recess
 A gliding ship was seen to press ; *
 The suns and rains of many a sea
 Had bleach'd her sails' white canopy ;
 For many a climate she has view'd,
 And many a silent ocean plough'd ;
 And many a month alone—alone—
 'Twixt sky and ocean she has gone ;
 Her Indian crew has seen the forms
 That haunt the darken'd Cape of Storms, †
 And heard the ghastly breakers roar,
 That wash Mozambique's rocky shore :
 Their ship has pass'd, with British guide,
 Along th' Atlantic's boundless tide :
 And now, return'd, they joy to lave
 Again their course in Indian wave.
 The land-lock'd inlet now they keep,
 Their plunging anchor seeks the deep ;
 Released from toil, their dangers o'er,
 Each Indian sailor seeks the shore ;
 And each, before his idol's shrine,
 Returns his thanks for help divine—

* To an inhabitant of British India, few spectacles are more interesting than the return from England of a ship manned by the Indian Natives, who, under good British officers, make most efficient seamen. The very appearance of such a vessel is singular, with her sails and cordage bleached to whiteness by the vicissitudes of a long voyage ; while the aspect of her crew is still more so—who, after having seen the wonders of the great sea, and the manners of nations as strange to them as Spain was to the first Mexicans, return at last to their homes, and offer thanks for their safety at the shrines of idols of wood and stone. The accompanying verses are supposed to be the Hymn of a Worshipper of the Fire, or Guebre, in the circumstances mentioned.

This sect, it may be observed, (well-known to the readers of ' *Lalla Rookh*,') claim to be the representatives, in religious opinion, of the most ancient Persians, and are in India generally denominated Parsee, in distinction to the inhabitants of Persia, who are called Iranee. The Parsees have a volume, (of which a translation has lately been published,) professing to be as ancient as some of the sacred books, and containing fragments of the works of several of their prophets, of whom Zoroaster (or Zerdusht) was the last. Mr. Henry Martyn saw their high priest, when at Bombay, and mentions his literary qualifications with respect.

† When at the Cape, we purchased a volume once belonging to one of the exiles of the French Revolution, which is thus inscribed : ' *Numero — de la Bibliothèque du Philosophe B. de la Motte, D. D. au Cap de toutes les Tourmentes, alias "Cabo dos todos Tormentos!"* *Helas ! L'an 1794.*

For help divine that leads his way
 Again to reach his native bay :
 Mohammed, Vishnoo, Zerdusht, all
 May hear their kneeling votaries call.
 See, yonder Guebre far retires
 Where gleam his own ancestral fires,
 And bends before an altar low,
 Whose mystic flames eternal glow.
 In wild devotion kneeling there,
 The grateful votary pours his prayer ;
 And thus his kindling thoughts aspire,
 'To praise the awful ' God of Fire.'

THE GUEBRE'S HYMN.

Lo ! kneeling again at the fane of my sires,
 I bow to the God whom their fathers adored ;
 Amid its bright altar it never expires,
 It lives on the sea, and on earth it is Lord.
 Through all the wide shores where my absence has gone,
 Its power and its splendour my footsteps have seen ;
 Or ruling in terror its greatness was shown,
 Or aiding the gladness and wealth of the scene.
 By isles of the savage I kneel'd to thy gleam,
 Beheld in the night by our wave-shaken bark,
 And witness'd thee bless with thy heat and thy beam,
 The lands where mankind as their midnight are dark.
 Mid ocean's dim channels, where shoals lie unseen,
 And rocks are conceal'd till they crash on the wreck,
 Thy light was our beacon ; far hail'd was its sheen,
 'To seamen a sun, though on land but a speck.
 I saw thy fierce ray shooting upward at night,
 Where towers the volcano o'er Seas of the West ;
 Its glare brought the foam of the breakers to light,
 And shone on the storm-bird that rock'd on their crest.
 I saw thee in power rolling widely thy fires,
 O'er cities that shrivell'd and crack'd in thy beam ;
 Thy flames rose in sport upon turrets and spires,
 And rush'd over streets with the roar of a stream.
 I've seen thee ascend o'er the funeral pyre,*
 Where mourners at eve did the rites of the tomb :
 And thus shall thy splendours triumphant aspire,
 Over earth and its skies at the hour of their doom.

Q.

* The Hindoo Natives of India burn their dead, and the ceremony is performed chiefly in the twilight.

EXAMINATION OF THE ARGUMENTS AGAINST A FREE PRESS
IN INDIA.

THERE is nothing in the peculiar circumstances of India to abate the force with which the facts and arguments contained in the preceding articles, published in this journal, on the advantages of a free press generally, tend to establish the expediency, wisdom, and justice of granting a legal toleration to the most unrestrained freedom of opinion in that country as well as in all others. The relations between the Governors and governed, may be very different, without impairing the salutary influence on both, with which the regimen of free discussion is pregnant. In India, as in England, corruption and imbecility shrink from exposure; integrity defies the shafts of slander; talent laughs at the attacks of presumptuous ignorance; and the true characters of men and measures *may* be ascertained long before such knowledge could be of no other use than to 'point a moral,' and deform the pages of history with facts that dishonour human nature. As a substitute for the control of a local press, that of England would be little more efficacious than the voice of history, wasting the sweetness of its commendations, and the bitterness of its reproofs, on men whom neither the one nor the other will be able to deflect from the courses they are severally pursuing. The people of England are so distant, and so pre-occupied with nearer and dearer interests, that their judgments on the affairs of India come like the dispassionate but powerless judgments of posterity.

It may, indeed, be said, that the co-existence of a free press with the absolute forms under which the Government of India is administered, would present something anomalous and unprecedented; that, in England, as a free press has been the result, so it is the necessary concomitant of other institutions for the protection of liberty, since an appeal to the public is an appeal to those who by their influence and votes elect the persons who constitute by far the most powerful member of our tripartite Government; whereas, in India, where the mass of the population are subject to a handful of foreigners who occupy every office of trust and power, an appeal to the public would either be an appeal to the Natives who do not possess any recognised means, direct or indirect, of influencing the determinations of Government, and who, though they are rather excluded from offices for incapacity than by exclusion incapacitated, might urge very inconvenient and dangerous pretensions to emancipation from their various disabilities, or to the European servants of Government, who are charged with the execution of measures respecting the adoption of which they have no deliberative voice. To these plausible apologies it may be replied, that the Government of India is despotic in *form* only, being compelled to render a

minute account of all its proceedings to the Court of Directors, and to receive, through them, and in their name, the orders of the President of the Board of Control; being also liable to the animadversions of either House of Parliament, and to the unreserved discussions of their conduct by the periodical press. If there is no free press in India, therefore, it is not because the Governor-General in Council is armed with power to prevent it, but because the *Parliament of England* will not allow it,—because the representatives of those who are ever ready to confess that the blessings of a free press are inestimable, deliberately renounce the assistance of that invaluable instrument in the Government of a distant dependency, for whose welfare they are most deeply responsible! It is the Parliament of England who refuse to apply that surest test, not merely of the spirit in which the local Government is administered, but of the degree in which its institutions are adapted to the character and circumstances of the people. If India were really subject to an arbitrary Government, the introduction of a free press would be hopeless and impracticable; but, so long as its Government is in the hands of Englishmen or their descendants, no such obstacle can be assigned as the cause of its non-existence.

Nor would the co-existence of a free press, with the division of the inhabitants into a governing and subordinate class, be anomalous and unprecedented. It does now exist in America and the West Indies, where the inferior classes are much more depressed by adverse laws and manners than they are in India. As an organ for the expression of the opinions of the Natives and more benevolent Europeans, it would greatly tend to mature the intellectual powers, and ameliorate the general condition of the former, though it could not effect any *sudden* improvement of their character, nor inspire the idea of attempting, nor the means of accomplishing innovations; while the very manner in which they stated their pretensions, and advocated their claims, would afford the best means of judging whether it would be wise to concede or resist them. If the several orders in the state are so balanced, that power flows in the channels which it would naturally scoop for itself, a free press will not disturb the arrangement; but, if they are not, it will gradually and peaceably conduce to its distribution into such channels, before the violence done to nature has occasioned a more violent description of retaining banks and opposing mounds.

It is true that the duties of the servants of Government are ministerial; but the implicit obedience which they owe to the orders of Government, according to their several departments and individual places, is perfectly compatible with the freest avowal of their opinions on the measures of Government, and with their commenting on erroneous policy, whenever they *bona fide* believe it to be practised or projected. In venturing on such appeals to public

opinion, a man may contribute to reforms in matters of legislation and administration, where private or official communications would have been treated with entire disregard, with listless indifference, or with insolent contempt. On the other hand, he may manifest symptoms of profound ignorance, presumption and indiscretion, and thereby enable Government and all the world to appreciate him more justly; but, whatever other imputations may be grounded on such productions, they do not warrant a charge of contumacy or insubordination, far less of treasonable dissatisfaction. If, indeed, charges of (constructive) contumacy or insubordination were supported by references to supposed libels, and verdicts on such charges were founded by the party preferring them, there would be no security for innocence, and no restraint on abuse of authority, except from the energy of the press itself. In England, where that sovereignest remedy is practically free, notwithstanding the gratuitous suffering occasionally inflicted at the caprice of the Attorney-General for the time being, there are thousands of servants of Government, civil and military, to whom the press is as easily and safely accessible, as to the most independent country-gentlemen, some of whom do openly, others anonymously, review the proceedings of public functionaries, of whatever rank or station, not only without any inconvenience, but with the utmost benefit to the state. To debar the whole body of placemen from contributing any thing but assentations and praise to the political literature of the day, would be to degrade and corrupt a most important part of the sum of national virtue and intelligence.

There is another description of Europeans in India, the merchants, who are dependent on Government, no otherwise than that they are liable to be transported to England without trial! That is, Parliament takes advantage of its own monstrous wrong, and tells men who must otherwise be eminently qualified by their knowledge, experience, and the stake they hold in the welfare of the country, to enter into discussions regarding its most important interests, that they are disqualified for the exercise of such patriotic functions by their subjection to a species of slavery from which their *Asiatic* fellow-subjects are exempt! The doctrine of constructive contempt being carried to so hideous an extent, as that the Governor-General shall have power, not to imprison for a few months, but to arrest and send to England any British-born subject whom he may adjudge to be the author of a libel, it is plain that no more effectual step could have been taken to shut up the thoughts and cares of the *British* part of the community within the circle of their own private affairs, and to leave the Governor-General the fearful responsibility of originating measures, and acting on orders framed by persons ten thousand miles distant, with no other information as to the circumstances, interests, and temper of the immense and heterogeneous population to be affected by them, than what is permitted to perco-

late through the regular channels of official communication. Of such a system of government it may be safely affirmed, that 'it is not, and it cannot come to good.' The Epicurean stillness that is now so grateful, will some day be broken by the noise of commotions which a more generous policy alone can avert.

The objection that a free press in India would relax the bands of military discipline, is so contradicted by experience, and the confusion between difference of opinion in matters unconnected with the professional obligations of the parties and actual disobedience of orders, or contempt of authority, is so gross, that it is unworthy of serious examination. A more plausible apprehension, however, may be suggested, that a free press would make more apparent and sensible that preponderance of latent power which now resides in the army; and that, without injuring discipline, the discussion of military interests would be carried on with so much animation and appearance of concert, as to raise the tone in which favours from Government might be solicited more than was perfectly desirable and convenient. But let it be remembered, that a free press would incessantly labour to hasten the arrival of the day when all restraints on COLONISATION shall be removed, and thereby set in motion that power which alone can fill up the several stages of society in those proportions which are most favourable to strength and happiness. When that great object is attained, every other blessing will follow in its train; the germs of peace, order, and security, of industry, arts, and knowledge, will be widely diffused; internal tranquillity will be no longer dependent on the precarious fidelity of a soldiery who have so little in common with those under whose command, and for whose benefit, they hold broad India in subjection. Nor would Calcutta be exposed to insult, as she was in May, 1824, when she counted the handful of Christian population whom she could arm for her protection. A race of Native Christian seamen of European, aboriginal, and mixed extraction, capable of supporting the honour of the British flag, will be created. External security will no longer be exposed to the chances of the unequal contest between an invading Russian force of great numerical strength, consummate discipline, and undoubted attachment to its leaders, and a defensive army so scattered over an immense peninsula, in order that the distrusted population may be every where overawed, that corps of adequate strength cannot be collected where they are required; unaccustomed to act in masses, and for the first time brought into contact with the persevering activity and combination of European modes of warfare; while we are bereft of all resources in the affection, courage, and wealth of the inhabitants, wherewith to meet and repel the first advantages the invader might obtain. Finally, that dreadful abomination, that bloody rite, with the connivance at which we have so long tried the patience of Heaven, the burning of Hindoo widows, would be abolished; that mixture of cowardice and

indifference to human suffering, to which its continuance must be ascribed, could not long resist the ceaseless appeals, the importunate cry, the indignant remonstrances, of a free press !

It is as the precursor of Colonisation, that a free press is indispensable to the prosperity, and even to the salvation of India, while its influence, during the short interval by which its establishment might precede the achievement of its first victory over inveterate prejudice and injustice, could not but be beneficial. The period when the East India Company must surrender all their privileges is not far distant ; and yet, if the Company, retaining their only valuable possession—their patronage, would agree to the removal of the obstacles to Colonisation, during the short unexpired term of their last charter, it would be most unwise and hazardous to postpone such removal until the expiration of the charter. Every day increases the tenuity of the hands by which we hold India, and diminishes the sources of disunion among its immense population. Why then should the Company refuse their consent to an immediate recurrence to Colonisation ? Formerly they resisted that remedial measure from a conviction that to acquiesce in it would be virtually to sign their own death-warrant ; and, if the cup of Colonisation had been offered to them on pain of extinction, if that ‘damning choice’ had been forced upon them, they would have exclaimed :

‘To drink or die!—Oh, fraud ! Oh, specious lie !
Delusive choice ! for, *if* we drink, we die !’

But that ground of resistance is cut from under them. By consenting, they will not die an hour sooner ; nor will their refusal protract their existence an hour beyond that which is already on the wing, bearing the sentence of their dissolution.

This question could never have been satisfactorily discussed and exhausted, if we had not been challenged to examine the arguments by which the Government of India justified to itself the measure by which it had trodden out the last spark of liberty in the local press. ‘It must be quite unnecessary,’ says the organ of the Bengal Government, ‘to disclaim any wish to conceal the real character of the measures of Government, or even their most secret springs, from the knowledge of those controlling authorities to which the law has subjected it, or of the *great body of our countrymen*, whom the spirit of the Constitution, and the practice of the Government at home, have rendered the ultimate judges of the conduct of every public functionary. No one entertains a more unfeigned deference for the constitutional control of *public opinion*, than the Governor-General, or is more solicitous to have every public measure, in which he has been engaged, submitted to that tribunal, which, in the end, will *always* do justice to upright intentions and honest endeavours in the public service. With equal

readiness does he acknowledge the *utility* of this species of control, in rendering public men circumspect in the performance of their duties, and checking every propensity to abuse the power, influence, and authority derived from public station. But he protests against the *assumption* of this right of control over the Government and its officers, by a community constituted like the European Society of India. He denies the existence of such a right *in that body*, and he maintains that it never can be exercised with efficiency for the professed purpose, or with any other consequence than weakening the JUST AND NECESSARY AUTHORITY of Government, and introducing the worst spirit of party animosity and violence into this LIMITED SOCIETY, through the agency of a LICENTIOUS Press. The latter result has already been produced in a considerable degree; and, if the former is *not yet perceptible* as injuriously affecting public measures, it must not be supposed that the perpetual assaults on the character and respectability of Government, *contemptible as they frequently are*, are not calculated to shake greatly that salutary confidence in its justice and integrity, and that habitual deference for its authority and judgment, which, with advertence to the *anomalous structure* of our power in this country, it is so essential to preserve unimpaired. The inherent force of Government would probably always enable it to carry measures, in support of which it should choose to *put out its strength* against any opposition; but it is needless to dwell on the multiplied ill effects which would result from a state of things requiring the *ungracious* substitution of *simple force*, for that powerful and persuasive influence which the name of Government has hitherto carried with it. Yet either this must be the result of a system, which will in time make every public measure a point of contest between authority and resistance, or the Government must be content to relinquish that power which it holds, and which it has exercised *exemplarily* for the public good, into the hands of an IGNORANT AND MISCHIEVOUS FACTION.*

The Governor-General protests against the expediency of granting to the European Society of India, a right to exercise such a control over the measures of Government as is implied in the comments of the periodical press, because it *never can be exercised with efficiency for the professed purpose*, notwithstanding that he ascribes to it the superabundant power of *weakening the just and necessary authority of Government*, and even reducing Government to the necessity of choosing between carrying every measure by main force, and surrendering the administration into the hands of the

* Statement of Facts relative to the removal from India of Mr. Buckingham, in a Pamphlet, printed at the Government Press of Calcutta, and written by the late Mr. Adam, the Acting Governor-General, and author of the act alluded to.

ignorant and mischievous conductors of this (inefficient) press ! The great body of our countrymen are represented as fit to be the ultimate judges of the conduct of every public functionary, and to constitute an enlightened, just, and generous tribunal, from which there need be and can be no appeal. On the other hand, that portion of our countrymen which is formed by annual swarms from the colleges of Hertford and Addiscombe, and other seminaries of learning, by emigrations from every walk in life, with the addition of a small number born in the country, some of them of mixed blood, but of unmixed principles, is held to be transmuted into a mass of ignorance and vice. How are we to account for this extraordinary difference between two bodies of men, who, according to all ordinary experience, ought to be identified in moral and intellectual character ? Does error exert the same supremacy over the minds of Englishmen in India, that is justly ascribed to truth in England ? Is there any thing in the air of India to give to a bad cause those resources for its advocates, and to a bad man those gifts of persuasive eloquence, which have hitherto been supposed the exclusive attributes of a good cause and good man ? Or is there a less proportion of the European community biassed by interested considerations to think and speak favourably of all the measures of Government ? It is so obvious that these questions must be answered in the negative, that we cannot but suspect that this readiness to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the press of *England*, and to deny that of *India*, proceeds from a knowledge of the many causes which disqualify the former from exercising any active control over the measures of a Governor-General, and which preclude the possibility of its penetrating into 'their most secret springs.' Those who have been exposed in high stations within the point-blank range of the press of England, have frequently betrayed as morbid a sensibility to newspaper discussion, and as confused an apprehension of its tendency, as we find in Mr. Adam's pamphlet respecting its effects in India. Thus Mr. Justice Allybone said, that, 'if once we come to impeach the Government by way of argument, it is the argument that makes the Government, or not the Government ;' and therefore, he laid down the position, 'that no private man can take upon him to write *concerning* the Government at all,' and indeed, few will trouble themselves to write or read any thing concerning a Government which permits only one side of every question to be heard. Lord Holt said, 'If men should not be called to account for possessing the people with an ill opinion of the Government, no Government can subsist.' Dr. Johnson said, 'If every murmurer at Government may diffuse discontent, there can be no peace.' But not even Justice Allybone, nor Dr. Johnson, ventured to propose that the fate of persons accused of murmuring at Government should be determined by the accuser himself, and not by a jury. No man, however, intoxicated by power, or abject by dependence, or bigoted by prejudices, has dared to suggest, since

the beginning of the eighteenth century, that the just and necessary authority of Government required, that *Government itself* should be the sole judge of the validity and reasonableness of the grounds on which it selected for punishment the victims whom it charged with publishing opinions which tended to 'weaken' its just and necessary authority.

That party animosity and violence are inseparable from the discussions of the subjects of a free Government, is undeniable; but what pretence is there for asserting that a free press would introduce its 'worst spirit' among the European community of India? Party feeling is the social attachment which prevails among men united in the pursuit of a common object, and which leads them to sacrifice individual advantages for the sake of the advancement of the cause to which they have pledged their fidelity. The abuse of that feeling begets an undue indulgence to the faults of our own party, collectively and individually, and uncandid judgments respecting the just claims of our opponents; but the tendency of this very collision is to establish and protect the inviolability of such institutions as are best calculated to render innocence safe and property secure, and to facilitate to each individual the performance of all that he can do for himself, and of all that society can do for him. Wherever such monuments of civilisation are found, they commemorate the conflicts of adverse parties, the martyrdom and the ultimate triumph of virtue; but, when the good fight has long ago been successfully closed, such dregs of bitterness as cannot be altogether purged from human nature, are comparatively harmless, and are subject to the continual counteraction of better influences. What mischief can 'party animosity' then do? It cannot rob an innocent man of his character, nor confiscate his property, nor tear him from his home and transport him across the wide ocean. No! these are the prerogatives of the power that is to stifle every murmur, and hush party discord into silence. It is by tamely submitting to so tyrannous and shameful a yoke, that the British inhabitants of India are invited to purchase such deceitful tranquillity!

The evil which resulted from the factious spirit which distracted the Council Board during the administration of Warren Hastings, was occasioned by the want of power in the Governor-General, to carry measures on his own responsibility, in opposition to a majority of the Council,—a defect which was remedied in 1786. Differences of opinion will prevail in all councils; the prospect of attainable power exasperates those differences, quickens jealousy, and inflames hostility; but, when neither accident nor combination can shake the power of the Governor-General, we may reasonably expect that the measures he adopts, and those proposed by his colleagues, will receive a more candid consideration; that one consistent system of internal and external policy will be pursued; and that the views of the President and of each member (the former

being relieved from all fear of a diminution, and the latter from all hope of an accession, of power,) will be fixed on the means of securing the permanent approbation and esteem of their countrymen. Under this arrangement, the dissensions that free discussion might occasion, would be proportioned to the character and success of an administration. Under an able and popular Governor-General, their sound would not be heard amidst the chorus of applause that would ascend from a happy community. Under one who, from mediocrity of talents and infirmity of purpose, ought never to have been invested with so arduous and so awfully responsible an office, the causes and the extent of the general dissatisfaction, would be made known to England by the clearest evidence; who would thereby be enabled to put an end to an ignoble or a dangerous career, which had been previously checked by the animadversions of the press. And surely the British community of India, whose welfare and safety are involved in the choice of a Governor-General, have a right to demand that no man shall be sent to preside over so difficult a Government, whose reputation would not gain manifestly more than it would suffer from unlimited freedom of discussion.

To return to the pamphlet. The following long extract could not be abridged without injury to a very important question :

‘ It is said, however, by the advocates of the system, that a Government will acquire strength and public confidence in proportion as its measures are publicly and fearlessly canvassed, and that, while it has nothing to be ashamed of, it may court public scrutiny, not merely with safety, but with advantage even, to itself. This, as a general position, may be admitted to the full extent; but the question is, where and by whom is this scrutiny to be exercised? That the Public, *as it is called*, of India is entitled to exercise it, or qualified for the task, will scarcely be maintained by any one who has considered how that public is composed. That it comprehends *many able and enlightened men*, every one will admit. That many of them are *eminently qualified* to afford advice and information to Government, on *all* topics of public administration, is *undeniable*; and it is equally so, that the Government has never been *backward* in availing itself of their talents and information. But is the *collective body* therefore qualified to represent the Public, in the sense in which the term is now used, and to exercise a controlling power over a Government, *ON WHICH ITS MEMBERS ARE ALL MORE OR LESS DIRECTLY DEPENDENT*? Supposing such a local control to be desirable according to the constitution of the Indian Governments, can it be exercised with due efficiency, or to any useful purpose of check, by men over whose *fortunes and prospects* the Government *necessarily* and legally possesses a species of power which precludes the notion of a constitutional control in the other party? The right to exercise this control claimed by the advocates of a free press,

seems to possess as little foundation. Let us consider for a moment, for whom this right is asserted. The European community in India will be found on examination to be composed, 1st, Of Officers, civil or military, of his Majesty and the Company : 2d, Of persons engaged in mercantile pursuits, residing in India under license from the Court of Directors, liable to be withdrawn by the local Government WITHOUT A REASON ASSIGNED ; or so residing without license under the tacit permission of Government : 3dly, Of a lower class of men of business, traders and handicraftsmen, either residing similarly under a license at will, or without any such sanction, and therefore, like the unlicensed of the former class, in the *hourly commission of a misdemeanour at law* !—It is a mockery to claim for a community so constituted, the political privileges and functions of the great and independent body of the people of England ; and the notion could only have originated in the minds of those who, *from some inexplicable views, or from motives of mere lucre*, seek to raise themselves to consequence by stirring up *contention and strife*. This confusion of things essentially different will be found to run through the whole of the reasoning of the advocates of the ‘ Free Press,’ and is, in fact, the only foundation of their argument. The very statement of the case seems sufficient to expose the fallacy of the argument, and the absurdity of the pretension ; but it may be useful to examine the question a little more closely. It will scarcely be contended, that the civil and military servants of the Company, or the officers of his Majesty’s forces serving here, are to constitute themselves into judges of the measures which it is their province to execute. Their experience and information in their respective spheres, obtained in *free and confidential communication*, must be in many instances essentially useful to the Government, in framing their measures ; but it would be an anomaly equally absurd and dangerous, to confer on them the power of a controlling body to canvass and discuss in public assemblies, or in newspapers, measures adopted on *mature deliberation* by the power to which they are directly subordinate, and of the *true and secret springs* of which the majority of them must in general be PROFOUNDLY IGNORANT. To say nothing of the indecorous and disgraceful appearance of such an inversion of the *just order of things*, the admission of such a license must speedily lead to the confounding of all subordination and respect for authority, and generate a spirit of controversy and resistance, highly detrimental to the public service.

‘ It is a prominent part of the evident policy of the upholders of this system, to address themselves to the *passions* and *supposed interests* of all branches of the service ; and, though little likely to affect those whose principles are *fixed* and habits *confirmed*, it cannot excite surprise that doctrines, so *speciously presented to the imagination of the young and the inconsiderate*, should make a POWERFUL IMPRESSION, and weaken, if not destroy, the habits of insubordina-

tion and respect for their superiors, so essential to the discipline and efficiency of a military body.'

The first objection here made to the existence of a right in the British community of India to comment on the measures of Government is, that, though 'it comprehends many able and enlightened men,' yet 'the collective body is not qualified to represent the public in the sense in which the term is now used, and to exercise a controlling power over a Government on which its members are more or less directly dependent.' Now the able and enlightened part of every community, if reckoned by *tale*, must be but a small proportion of the collective body; but, if estimated by weight, *they*, and not as preposterously maintained in this pamphlet, 'the ignorant, young, and inconsiderate,' direct and govern the opinions and feelings of the whole mass. If Government can, by the wisdom of its plans and the benevolence of its intentions, carry with it the approbation and sympathy of the former description of persons, it has nothing to dread from the feeble petulance of the latter; but then, the fact of its measures having the concurrence of the most intelligent part of the community, can be guaranteed and manifested by no other provision than that of unlimited freedom of discussion. What other security *can* there be for Government's always availing itself of their talents and information, not merely as far as may be convenient for certain purposes, but as far as a sound and honest policy would dictate?

The second objection to the claim of the British community of India to be entrusted with the privilege of free discussion, is their dependence on the patronage and on the arbitrary power of Government. The experience of England and North America shows, that the co-existence of freedom of discussion with the former sort of dependence, is pregnant with advantages to Government in promoting the efficiency of all its establishments, ecclesiastical, civil, naval, and military; and the experience of every age and country, as well as those moral axioms which are written on the hearts of all men, declare, that the existence of the latter sort of dependence is a crime in all who contribute to it. The dependence of A on the patronage of Government is no reason why B, who subsists on the produce of his own industry or patrimony, should be made dependent on its caprice. Because A. may be unjustly removed from his office on a false pretence of having forfeited the confidence of Government in his public character, may B., from whom no official duties are claimed, be liable to transportation without trial, because his innocence could not be judicially impeached? Yet the necessary possession of power over the fortunes and prospects of its servants, to the just exercise of which a free press would oppose no obstacle, is, in this pamphlet, constantly urged as a reason ~~for~~ superadding a degree of power over the fortunes and prospects of *other* persons, which could never be exercised without flagrant abuse. A

Government and its functionaries owe reciprocal obligations to each other. The former is bound not merely to listen candidly to and decide equitably on every claim submitted to it, but to exercise and encourage a wide search for, and quick discernment of, merit and talent in all their varieties. The latter are bound, not merely to discharge the duties of their respective offices with fidelity and assiduity, but, considering themselves as members of one commonwealth, to employ generally for the public advantage whatever genius and information they may possess. Whether *all* parties, masters and servants, are liable to be impressed with a more lively sense of the duties expected from them, and a firmer confidence in their means of exacting respect to what they have a right to claim at the hands of others, under a system of publicity or concealment,—under one which loves, or under one which abhors, the light,—under one which favours every thing that is open, manly, and impartial, or one that generates secrecy, servility, venality, and intrigue,—is a question on which the reader cannot hesitate to pronounce.

Of those who are not in the service of the King or the Company, it is said, that they are either ‘ persons engaged in mercantile pursuits, residing in India under license from the Court of Directors, liable to be withdrawn by the local Government, without a reason assigned ; or so residing, without license, under the tacit permission of Government, or a lower class of men of business, traders and handicraftsmen, either residing similarly under a license at will, or without any such sanction, and, therefore, like the unlicensed of the former class, in the hourly commission of a misdemeanour at law.’ But the unlicensed of the former class were admitted to be residing under the tacit permission of Government ; so that either Government must be in the hourly connivance at the commission of a misdemeanour, or the unlicensed of both classes must be guiltless of any offence. It is not easy to estimate the difference in point of security between those who enjoy licenses revocable at will, and those who are tacitly permitted to reside during the pleasure of the Government. Each has that tenure which Coke said he could not find in Littleton, that a man should be tenant at will for his liberty. It is said to be ‘ a mockery to claim for a community so *CONSTITUTED*, the political privileges and functions of the great and independent body of the people of England :’ as if it were so constituted by the immutable laws of nature ; and though there is no other privilege claimed than that of *TRIAL BY JURY*, and no other functions than that of printing under responsibility to that least partial tribunal.

It may well be said to be a mockery, for a community so slavishly constituted, whose right to sit in judgment on the acts of Government is expressly denied, to approach that Government with addresses stuffed with every term of adulation that language can supply. Can men, trembling lest their licenses to reside in India

should be withdrawn without a reason assigned, and who have witnessed the deportation of all those who attempted to insinuate disapprobation of a single act of the Governor-General, stand erect before that Governor-General, and with grave faces testify their unqualified admiration of the whole course of his administration? On such occasions, however, we invariably find that the disqualifying circumstances which had been previously insisted on as reasons for disallowing the competency of the British community to represent the public, are not merely forgotten; but their moral qualifications for sustaining such a character, *better than any more distant portion of our countrymen*, are acknowledged in terms which indirectly protest against the continuance of that 'constitution,' which, in spite of reciprocated civilities, robs the address of half its sweetness. Thus Lord Hastings said, in reply to the address presented to him by the British inhabitants of Calcutta, July, 1818:

'The compliment with which you honour me is truly gratifying. Were I to consider you merely as men of worth and talent, desirous of marking your friendship towards me by a flattering civility, the distinction conferred upon me by the favour from persons of such stamp would demand the warmest return from my heart. I entreat you to believe that you do meet that return; but with much, very much, superadded to it. In the satisfaction I am enjoying, there is something far beyond individual vanity. The sentiments which you have been pleased this day to express, are not uttered to me alone. *They are vouchers tendered to our countrymen at home.* I am not alluding to the pride I must naturally feel in having such a testimony borne respecting me to our native land; the sensation which you have awakened in me is of a higher quality. A wider scope is inseparable from your treatment of the subject than what applies to me personally. *You are pronouncing* whether they who may be said to have represented the British character on the occasion did faithfully and becomingly fulfil that exalted trust: and your proximity, your stations, your excited vigilance, eminently qualify you for returning a verdict, while your manhood would make you spurn at giving, through courtesy, an opinion which your *judgment belied*. Many of you have had to contemplate your most important private interests as staked in the transactions to which you refer; but all of you have felt that the national honour in which you were severally sharers, was involved in the purpose and tenour of the measures I had the lot to guide. Under such an impression, you have stood forward to attest that the dignity of British justice has not been sullied. It is a declaration superiorly grateful; for my portion in the aggregate of British fame is more touching to me than a separate and selfish reputation.'

And in reply to the farewell address, presented to him, December 9th, 1822, he said, 'The testimony of approbation, to which you allude, from my Honourable employers at home, has been matter

of heart-felt satisfaction to me. I might well indulge vanity in such a recognition of the results from my endeavours, as far, at least, as my consciousness of what was attributable to those who co-operated with me would allow me to ascribe any thing to myself. *Yet this would still be but an outline, within which there was room for those nearer at hand to perceive many defects, such as might justly detract from aught of merit in the mere superficial feature.* You have striven to make me believe that you have not discovered blemishes of such extent. Need I say, how much I feel that favourable judgment.' And even Mr. Adam, in his reply to an address which he received from certain gentlemen of the province of Benares, was pleased to say, 'The favourable opinion of so respectable a body of my countrymen, *whose ability to appreciate the effect of public measures gives weight to their judgment, and whose independence of character is a pledge for the sincerity of their professions,* must ever possess high value in my estimation, and constitute a solid ground of satisfaction in reviewing the transactions of the short period, during which the charge of the Government was vested in my hands. In entering on the duties of the station to which I was so unexpectedly called, I derived confidence and support *from my experience of the talents and public spirit of the great body of the service in all its branches,* and the conviction that the measures I might pursue, if honestly directed to the promotion of the public interests, *would be candidly and fairly judged when their objects and results were known.* The sentiments you are pleased to express, assure me that that expectation was well founded,' &c.

The Benares address had no other object than to compliment Mr. Adam on his having banished Mr Buckingham, and licensed the press, according to a system of unprecedented rigour; but the laudatory expressions contained in it, are so vague and general, that they would be equally applicable to any other 'transactions' that could be imagined. There was not one measure specified, nor distinctly and unequivocally alluded to in the address, nor in the reply. Both documents leave their *sole topic*, and the distinguishing feature of that brief Administration, 'a deed without a name.' This coyness could scarcely have been intended to blind the youngest ensign who signed the address, as to its import, but only to veil the unseemly incongruity of men offering opinions which others were not permitted to controvert, on measures against the expediency of which *they* were not permitted to hear a single objection. If the great body of the Service in all its branches deserved the compliments paid to it by Mr. Adam, if he reposed so well-founded a confidence in its ability and public spirit, why did he subject that trustworthy majority to ignominious restraints, on pretence of the danger of the just and necessary authority of Government being overborne by the factious opposition of an ignorant, discontented, and vindictive minority? How much more appropriate

the liberal and confiding language of Mr. Adam's reply would have been, if the transactions to which it applied had been the *reverse* of those which are committed to the indelible record of history !

'The foregoing remarks,' continues the author of the pamphlet, 'are addressed chiefly to the PROBABLE EFFECTS of a free press conducted by British subjects ; but they are substantially not less applicable to unrestrained publication in the languages of the country, which possesses besides some features peculiar to itself. No person will deny that essential benefits may be derived from the operations of a Native press, *duly regulated and conducted by intelligent and well-intentioned individuals* ; nor can any means be devised for more effectually diffusing useful knowledge amongst the population of this country, than the cheap and periodical circulation of tracts and articles of intelligence, calculated to instruct and improve the public mind, under the guidance of *judicious and well-qualified* conductors. But in exact proportion must be the evils of an ill-regulated and licentious Native press. Nor can the minds of the Native population be truly said to be in a condition to derive those benefits from the sudden and rapid diffusion of literature, which alone would render the attempt safe and justifiable. The British Government in India has always acted on the *wise and humane* policy of adapting its laws to the state of society, and has CAUTIOUSLY ABSTAINED from the introduction of the institutions of a HIGHLY CIVILISED society among a LESS ENLIGHTENED people. The principle is at least as applicable to the question regarding the Native press as to any other. In England, the laws relating to the press have *kept pace with the progress of public opinion*, and with the other institutions of a free people. The minds of men have been *gradually* prepared for the exaggeration and misrepresentation which must ever attend freedom of publication, and have become enabled to make those discriminations which are essential to convert it to purposes of utility and improvement. No language can convey in adequate terms how repugnant to the ideas of the subjects of an Asiatic state, is a free press, employed as a means of controlling the Government ; and suddenly to attempt by that, or any other means, to overturn all previous habits of thinking and acting on such subjects, would be a blind and hazardous neglect of all the sound and cautious lessons which experience has taught us.'

As far as the objections hitherto discussed 'are substantially applicable to unrestrained publication in the languages of the country,' the replies which have been made to them may be considered not less so ; and we are now to consider the objections which are built on what is peculiar to the Native press. We have already seen that the evils of an 'ill-regulated,' by which is here meant a free press, bear no proportion to the good which it is calculated to produce ; that they are but tares among the wheat, and that to attempt to enjoy the good without its alloy of evil, would be to look for the

energy and dignity of virtue in a state of things which excluded every source of excitement and probation. The sudden and rapid diffusion of literature among the Natives, is spoken of as if it could be effected by mechanical force ; but it is obvious that the diffusion in question must be in proportion to the moral power of absorption, to the avidity with which the Natives seek after, and to the degree in which they comprehend and enjoy, the productions of the press ; and that freedom from restraint must be as safe and expedient during the tentative feebleness of an infant press, as during the enlightened vigour of its mature age. Hume was of opinion, that freedom of publication 'is attended with so few inconveniences, that it may be claimed as the common right of mankind, and ought to be indulged them *almost* in every Government ; except the ecclesiastical, to which, indeed, it would be fatal.' But, if he had adverted to the fact, that such a liberty communicated no immediate expansion to the mind of a nation, and that it did not imply the operation of any extrinsic force, but the slow fermentation of internal elements of intellectual power, he would probably not have qualified his proposition with any exception, seeing that this natural right of mankind could not be fatal to any form of government, but in the time and in the manner in which it ought to be so.

That laws ought to be adapted to the character and condition of the people among whom they are to be administered, is a 'swaggering major,' which proves nothing, but is rather the insidious worker of mischief, as favouring a disposition to assist the progress of our Native fellow-subjects with as few as possible of the *admunimenta* to which we have been indebted for our own superiority. What is the institution which we are required to abstain from introducing among a less enlightened people ? Is it one in which the Natives are to be agents entrusted with substantive power, which they are not qualified to exercise well and wisely ? No ; the institution for which it is pretended the Natives are still unripe, is a jury composed wholly of British subjects, to be interposed between them and punishment for their published *opinions*. To be liable to trial and punishment for opinion, is an evil from which the English themselves are not yet sufficiently civilised to be exempt. But that Natives in such cases should be amenable, not to a jury half English and half Natives, but to twelve indifferent Englishmen, would be, it is pretended, a measure of candour, impartiality, and fairness, which they could neither comprehend nor enjoy ! For a people in *their* stage of civilisation, it is necessary that the accuser should be judge—that the Governor who professes to make the good of the people committed to his care the object of all his measures, should have the power of chastising, at his own discretion, all who attempted to represent wherein his measures were *not* adapted to secure their professed ends. To escape with impunity, occasionally, when neither falsehood nor malice could be detected, in the prosecuted statement,

would be an extremity of indulgence which no Hindoo could sustain with moderate equanimity. To see the rage of power punctured by the lance of truth, restrained within reasonably equitable limits, would be so repugnant to his ideas, that nothing but a blind and hazardous contempt of the lessons of experience would risk the experiment. Such are the sentiments imputed to him by the author of the pamphlet; but, if he were permitted to speak for himself, he would say, that, if there is any thing in the system of British rule that has excited his special admiration and reverence,—if he has experienced or witnessed any thing which more than another has tended to alienate him from the indigenous habits of thinking, and to graft him heartily into the vigorous and kindly British stock,—it is that sacred regard for person and property which he sees worshipped in our courts of justice, that tender anxiety to discriminate between accusation and proof, however high the accuser may stand in point of influence and authority,—that approximation, in short, (why is it but an approximation?) to the practical enforcement of the maxim, that A GOVERNOR, like the King, CAN DO NO WRONG.

To claim the merit of governing India according to a wise and humane policy, which will abide the strictest examination of the people of *England*, and yet to refuse the so much surer test of the validity of those pretensions which would be furnished by permitting the voice of the people of *India*, both British and Native, to be freely heard, involves an inconsistency which it could scarcely be expected that the most eager enemy of a free press would seek to escape from, by plainly avowing that our policy had *not* for its object the good of the governed, but the perpetuation of their abasement. This enormous creed has been professed, and the complete subjugation of the Indian Press justified, on the ground that there is 'MUCH THAT IS CORRECT'* in the following passage from Erskine's defence of Stockdale :

'It may and must be true, that Mr. Hastings has repeatedly offended against the rights and privileges of Asiatic Government, if he was the faithful viceroy of an empire, wrested in blood from the people to whom God and nature had given it. He may and must have preserved that unjust dominion over timorous and abject nations, by a terrifying, overbearing, insulting superiority, if he was the faithful administrator of your Government; which having no root in consent or affection, no foundation in similarity of interests, nor support from any one principle which cements men together in society, could only be upheld by alternate stratagem and force. The unhappy people of India, feeble and effeminate as they are from the softness of their climate, and subdued and broken as they have been by the knavery and strength of civilisation, still occasionally start up in all the vigour and intelligence of insulted nature.

* 'Asiatic Journal' for June, 1822.

To be governed at all, they must be governed by a rod of iron ; and our Empire in the East would long since have been lost to Great Britain, if civil skill and military prowess had not united their efforts to support an authority, which Heaven never gave, by means which it never can sanction.'

Neither Mr. Hastings personally, nor the character of the nation whose delegated representative he was, and to whom he was accountable, could be warrantably and successfully defended on such Machiavellian principles ; much less could the permanent durability of our Empire in the East be established on such treacherous foundations. On the contrary, the security of that empire has no greater enemy to contend against, than a temptation to resort, on any occasion whatever, 'to means which Heaven can never sanction : ' nor can we have a better assurance that Heaven *HAS GIVEN*, and *WILL* support our authority, than by labouring under the guidance of its revealed will, which bids us be ' wise as serpents, and harmless as doves,' to cement by reciprocity of interests all ranks of the community, and multiply the true sources of their temporal and spiritual happiness. In furtherance of these purposes, not in vain was the transcendant eloquence of Burke employed to assert the eternal principles of public faith and national glory, and to impress on all future Governors a deep sense of the solemn account which might one day be exacted from them, of the degree in which they had fulfilled all the obligations of justice and mercy.

Neither in England, nor in any country, have the laws relating to the press been regulated by a consideration of the capacity of the people to resist attempts to impose on their understandings by ' exaggeration and misrepresentation,' but by the disposition and means which the people possessed to extort the abolition of iniquitous privileges from the ever-reluctant hands of power. It was not because the popular mind suddenly acquired, lost, and re-acquired, the faculty of discriminating between truth and falsehood, when both were laid before them, that the press was at once emancipated by the suppression of the Star Chamber in 1641 ; subjected to a censorship in 1643 ; again emancipated in 1660 ; again subjected to a censorship in 1663 ; a third time emancipated in 1679 ; a third time subjected to censorship in 1685 ; a fourth time emancipated in 1694 ; made the sport of a contested jurisdiction between the bench and the jury in 1731, until the usurpation of the former was abated in 1792 ; since which time there have been various devices, some temporary, some permanent, to facilitate convictions and aggravate punishments. All which fluctuations, with numberless modern instances of ' fears of the brave and follies of the wise,' might have been obviated by the simple expedient of holding men criminally responsible for their *conduct* only, and not for their *opinions*. When, however, the laws of England were transplanted to the banks of the Ganges, no exception was made of any relating

to the press on pretence of any peculiar affinity for, and excitability by, false and erroneous statements, on the part of the British or Native inhabitants of Calcutta. The power of 'transmission' was considered exclusively applicable to commercial *interlopers*; and the press of Calcutta was untrammelled by the smallest legal restraints, from the earliest times to the 4th of April, 1823, when Sir Francis Macnaghten registered the regulation for licensing the periodical press, which had been passed by the Governor-General in Council, on the 14th March, 1823.

The next objection urged by the author of the pamphlet is the effect which he attributes to free discussion in time of war and internal troubles. 'Let any one figure to himself the consequences of an unrestrained press, systematically inflaming the discontents which prevailed on the coast in 1809. The means of extensive combination which it would have afforded, and the fever and agitation in which it would have kept all parties, must have rendered the dangers of that alarming crisis beyond all calculation more appalling than they actually were. No less fatal might have been the consequences of an unrestricted Native press in the case of that alarming and violent spirit of religious fury which at one period agitated the Native soldiery.' All this proceeds on the inexcusable mistake of supposing that grievous restraints on the expression of men's opinions and feelings, and the absence of all restraint on power, are favourable to the internal tranquillity of a country; whereas no proposition is more indisputably established, than that countries so situated enjoy the *least* security against disturbance of their quiet, and most abound with the predisposing and proximate causes of oppression, discontent, conspiracy, and revolt. In both the cases referred to, the great evil was the ignorance of Government respecting the temper of the European and Native portions of the army, and the influences by which their minds were agitated. In both cases, a free press would have dispelled the darkness, and enabled Government to distinguish, at each successive step, whether the result would be likely to characterise its measures as prudent forbearance, judicious firmness, mischievous timidity, or desperate rashness. It would have seasonably checked and encouraged Government on the one hand, and on the other it would have disburthened the malcontents of great part of their resentment, and reduced all their grievances to such dimensions as they would bear when produced in open day before all the world. And it would have established much more speedily the conviction which has long prevailed, that Lord William Bentinck, whom the Court of Directors removed from his situation, 'in a manner calculated to make it peculiarly mortifying and disgraceful,'* was one of the ablest, and

* See his Letter and excellent Memorial addressed to the Court of Directors, dated February 7th, 1809.

Sir George Barlow, whom they did *not* remove, one of the most incapable, Governors ever employed in India.

The last objection resorted to, is 'the mischief that might be occasioned to the military plans and operations of Government, and to the marine and commerce of the port, by premature disclosures in the newspapers.' 'At home,' it is said, 'the evil is submitted to, because of the preponderant benefits attending the freedom of publication there : ' but no evidence of the existence of *the evil* is given or referred to. Let one single case be produced in which premature disclosures in the newspapers have been alleged as contributing to or extenuating the loss of ships, failure of an expedition, or defeat of an army, or as counteracting the designs, and thereby enhancing the glory, of a Nelson, or a Wellington. Without great indiscretion and breach of trust on the part of the confidential servants of Government, the editors of newspapers can have no secrets to disclose. Though the value of such information as spies and traitors can communicate, is generally much overrated ; yet the conveyance of public information to an enemy is guarded against by the severest penalty the law can inflict ; and recourse is sometimes had to temporary embargoes to prevent his obtaining it from neutrals. So much for this last forlorn argument against the liberty of unlicensed printing.

Whatever have been the restrictions imposed at any particular period on the liberty of the press, whatever the degree of control intrusted to its natural enemy, the executive power, there have been men ready to contend that no less rigorous system would be consistent with public order and tranquillity. Enlarge the sphere of individual authority ever so much, and the expansive force of human vanity will fill it. To expect, therefore, that those who administer the Government of India, would promulgate a self-denying ordinance, or seek to be bound by those fetters which protect the persons and property of eighteen millions of their countrymen in their native islands, or voluntarily renounce the privilege of being judges in their own cause, would be a vain imagination, unwarranted by any analogous proceeding in the history of the world. But let them be compelled to respect the plainest rights of humanity, and the scales will fall from their eyes ; they will then see, like other men, how the dignity and the strength of a Government result from the law-fenced liberty of the governed.

THE LAST PLAGUE OF EGYPT,

Exodus xii. 29, 30.

YEs ! brightly does the sunlight fall
 On temple, tower, and princely hall ;
 Wild gleams afar the mighty Nile,
 As if each wave had learn'd to smile ;
 And every light and stealing breeze
 That loves to grace the morning hours,
 Hath dallied with the spicy trees,
 And kiss'd the young and rising flowers.
 Yet there is gloom in Memphis now—
 A cold despair on every brow ;
 From him who toils his life away,
 The victim of a tyrant's sway,
 To him who from his gorgeous throne
 Looks down on Egypt as his own.
 All shudder, as the morning sun
 Reveals a woe they may not shun ;
 That sun in mockery resteth now
 On pallid lip and rigid brow—
 On manhood's features, harsh and grim—
 The beamless eye and pulseless limb—
 The cold, pale lips of childhood wear
 The last faint smile that quiver'd there—
 And beauty's raven locks are thrown
 O'er features fix'd as sculptured stone.
 Wild, deep, and long the wail is made
 Above the unregarding dead—
 The loud lament for glory gone—
 The wail for Egypt's elder-born !
 The monarch from his eye of pride
 Hath dash'd in scorn the tear aside,
 And check'd within himself the groan,
 When fell the heir of Egypt's throne !
 The princely hall—the mailed shed
 Have each their own devoted dead ;
 Each hath the mourner's thrilling cry,
 The mother's tear, and father's sigh.
 Groans Israel 'neath the spoiler's tread ?
 Rises her wail above the dead ?
 Not so—from bondage, chains, and toil—
 The tyrant's jest—the heathen's spoil—
 Unarm'd by all the plagues that bow'd
 The spirits of the stern and proud,
 With cymbal tone, and minstrel lay,
 Her joyous thousands pass away,
 And brightly in their pathway rise
 The grateful fires of sacrifice.

A JOURNEY FROM CONSTANTINOPLE TO VIENNA, BY WARNA AND
BUCHAREST.

No. I.

*Departure from Pera—Buyukderé—Fort of Kavako—Black Sea—
Flotilla from the Bosphorus.*

TOWARD the end of autumn, having accomplished an object for which I visited the capital of Turkey, I deliberated upon the best method of returning to England; and the result was, a determination to proceed by the Black Sea, to Warna, and from thence, by the usual route, to Bucharest, Vienna, &c. This journal, written for my own satisfaction, would not now be committed to the press, but that the affairs of Turkey have become so much a subject of public interest, that it is the duty of all to make known, at the present moment, whatever they may possess unpublished relating to that country.

OCTOBER 26.—I left Pera, and embarked in a small boat at Tophana, accompanied by two friends, who agreed to escort me to the entrance of the Black Sea. We dined at the tavern at Buyukderé; where, the wind being contrary, we bespoke beds, and passed a happy and convivial evening.

OCTOBER 27.—On waking early in the morning, we were most agreeably surprised to find that the wind, which had, for nearly two months, blown from the northward and eastward, had, in the course of the night, veered round to the southward, and was fair for Warna. Had I been strongly tinctured with the superstitions which prevailed in the days of the Roman Augurs, or not known that such a change is a frequent occurrence at that season of the year, and had been then for a long time expected, I should have considered this propitious circumstance as a certain prognostication of the complete ultimate success of my particular pursuits. Independently of considerations of this nature, in which a romantic mind might choose to indulge its humour, it was well calculated to inspire pleasure and hilarity in the most sober, to behold between one and two hundred sail of vessels, of various sizes and denominations, which had been detained wind-bound in the different ports of the Bosphorus for two months, striving with all sails set to reach its mouth, debouching successively from the canal, and spreading, during a delightful morning, in all directions, by the aid of a light breeze, over the smooth surface of the Euxine.

Having breakfasted, we embarked about ten o'clock in the large boat, directing the small one to follow, in order to take my two companions back to Pera, when it should become necessary to part. We were obliged, in order to clear out, to pass over to the far-

theft fort, on the opposite or Asiatic side of the canal, called Kavako, at which place there is a custom-house establishment. Here the clearance or *teskerré*, not being as was alleged quite regular, (the name of the principal boatman was omitted to be specified,) gave the Turkish custom-house officers an opportunity of extorting twenty-five piastres, equal to about one pound sterling, which I readily consented to be defrauded of rather than suffer a moment's detention, the weather being fine, and the wind fair. This matter being adjusted, and the *teskerré* put *en règle*, I took leave of my two friends, at the fort of Kavako. They embarked in the small boat to return to Pera, and we proceeded on our course. All the vessels, that sailed at the same time with us, stretched out to sea, our boat alone continuing to hug the shore.

There are altogether eight forts on the canal of the Bosphorus, four on each side. These would seem very efficient for the defence of the town against shipping; but, as they are commanded by the adjacent hills, it does not appear that they could make much resistance if attacked by any army from the land side. I am, therefore, of opinion, that Russia, whenever she chooses, may make herself mistress of Constantinople, and the canal of the Thracian Bosphorus; and that she has hitherto abstained from doing so upon grounds of general policy. It is well known that a Russian army of the necessary force could, in a very short period, be transported from the Crimea to Thrace, and landed on the coast of the Black Sea, so near to the metropolis of Turkey, as to be able, in a few hours, to cut off the water which supplies the city, by taking possession of the reservoirs, situated among the hills and woods between the Black Sea and Propontus, in the forests of Belgrade and Domouzderé. The plan of an expedition of this kind was actually proposed to the Empress Catherine, and its execution was only prevented by her death. When, in 1812, the approach of hostilities between France and Russia, had rendered it necessary for the latter Power to conclude peace with the Turks, it had been determined, and measures taken accordingly, that an army composed of troops of the line, marines, and militia, amounting to fifty thousand men, under the command of the Duke de Richelieu, should be transported from Sevastopol, in the Crimea, to Domouzderé, where its landing was to be effected under the protection of a fleet, commanded by Admiral Baillie. This army was to have taken possession of the reservoirs; and the Turks, who were perfectly unprepared for the event, would have been compelled to make peace upon almost any terms, or to abandon their capital. This scheme was to have been executed, in case any new difficulties had arisen in the negotiations of Bucharest. It was kept no secret; though it is doubtful whether any Turk suspects, even at the present day, its having been conceived and seriously intended. But, even if they were well apprised of the design, they could not probably prevent its being carried into execution.

On the left, in going out of the Bosphorus into the Black Sea, is a village and fortification, which, from its destination, carrying lights for the direction of mariners, is called Fanaraki. We had not proceeded far when the wind died away; and the boatmen, upon some calculation of their own respecting the wind or weather, put into a well-sheltered creek, a few miles from the mouth of the canal, where we remained from two to six o'clock P. M. Here they took in stone ballast and water, and dressed their victuals for dinner. I had some fowls roasted, which were brought from Pera, and made a hearty meal. At this place there were two huts on the beach, and in the bay were some boats with nets, placed in the Turkish manner; but we could not purchase any fish.

At a little distance from this creek is a small fort in good repair, called Kilala, but anciently, Fanar. Here a Cossack helped to make a fire to roast our fowls, to bring wood and water, to make fast the boat, &c.; and, for doing the honours of the place, he was perfectly satisfied with receiving ten paras, about twopence-halfpenny. He was a stouter man than is to be met with among the Greeks and Turks, and so different in appearance, that you would have pronounced him at once not to belong to either of these people. With a less civilised, I might almost say, a less humanised, appearance, he had, however, an expression of countenance which no one would distrust.

OCTOBER 28.—We coasted it all night, with a fair wind, and, about one o'clock P. M., stopped at the further entrance of a bay, in which there is a good harbour, and a village called Niatha. This is reckoned about half way to Warná. Much dew having fallen, I felt somewhat chilled, although the night was fine, having omitted to put up the awning. Here we remained till midnight, and, being well refreshed with sleep, proceeded on our voyage. The boatmen rowed well, and I encouraged them with some rum.

OCTOBER 29.—At nine o'clock A. M., we arrived off a Greek village of large size, but miserable appearance, called Basilika, situated on an eminence, overlooking a bay of considerable extent. At this place, the people, having heard that the plague existed in some village on the coast, threatened to fire upon us if we did not stand off. Upon assuring them, however, that we had no plague on board, and that we had not been in communication with any of those villages in which the disease prevailed, they allowed us to land: I could not get either eggs or milk. The boatmen purchased for themselves some goat's flesh, which they dressed and ate for dinner. Happily, I did not stand in need of any provisions, having laid in a plentiful stock at Constantinople. This village is supposed to be about two-thirds of the way to Warná. Hitherto, along the coast of Roumelia, although by no means a barren-looking country, there are scarcely any villages, and but a few houses, and not even many

buts, to be seen. The principal marks of population which I observed, were here and there a flock of sheep on the hills, and a few fishing-boats in the bays, or upon the beaches. This village has no Turkish inhabitants. There are consequently no mosques or minarets : the houses resemble those of the suburbs of Constantinople, and must have the same faults in respect to salubrity. The soil is almost similar ; the houses consist of rotten wood, badly put together, on a crazy foundation of stone, half covered with bad tiles, and intersected by a superfluity of windows, with here and there a square of glass.

This province is very subject to the plague. As is generally the case in the vicinity of the villages of the Levant, there are here many windmills. Perhaps, by the number of these mills, some estimate might be formed of the population. There were several large and many small fishing-boats on the beach. In this district, contrary to what generally happens, cultivation seems to increase in proportion as you recede from the capital. Behind Basilika, (pronounced by the natives Vasilika,) is a beautiful but irregular amphitheatre of hills, of moderate height, well wooded, and in parts well cultivated. The highest of them, called Babesah, is seen at a great distance, and forms a land-mark for mariners navigating the Black Sea. About ten miles before you come to Basilika, is a village called Ayathopolo. Under this amphitheatre, is an irregular but beautiful plain, extending in breadth towards the sea, to two, four, six, and eight miles ; and in length, towards the mountains, to ten, fifteen, and even twenty miles. It bears some resemblance to the plain of Troy. In the Black Sea, we met with an immense number of porpoises of very large size.

We left Basilika on Sunday about noon, and arrived at Izopoli between six and seven o'clock, where we slept. This is a considerable village, almost entirely Greek, with a large and safe harbour. Between it and the sea are fourteen or fifteen windmills, which have at a distance the appearance of large sentry or watch boxes, each having twelve short wings, or arms, resembling clusters of ladies' fans, extending from them as from a common centre. Several boats and vessels had put in here for shelter. At a point a mile or two before you come to Izopoli, (called, in Turkish, by a name which I forget, but which means *under the vines*,) there are several rocks, on one of which we were very near being wrecked, about dusk, owing to the obstinacy of the boatman at the helm. Instead of going outside of the rocks, as the others wished, he steered right in among them, and ran the boat upon a sunken rock, where we stuck for several minutes, every moment in danger of being overset. By throwing ballast overboard, however, and other exertions, with oars, poles, &c., we succeeded in pushing her off without sustaining any material damage. The boatmen, upon this occasion, except the man at the helm, who appeared to be the senior, showed a great deal of

activity and presence of mind. The surge against the rocks was so high, that, at one time, although not very far from the shore, I would have compounded for the loss of my baggage and a ducking. After having weathered many storms in high latitudes, it would have been a shabby death to have perished on an obscure rock on the coast of the Black Sea.

At day light on Monday morning, the 30th of October, we left Izopoli; but, the wind being contrary, we were obliged, about ten o'clock, to put into the large village of Achillo, situated upon a peninsula of that name. On the beach, at this place, the women were washing their linen, by dipping it repeatedly in the Black Sea, and trampling it afterwards with their feet on the sand, which was fine, smooth, and dense. There were also pieces of narrow cloth (linen, I believe) bleaching upon the sea-shore, some of which looked at a distance beautifully white. I repeatedly tasted the water of this sea, without being able to discover in it any saline property.

From Achillo, one may go in the vehicles of the country to Rustchuk. It is only four hours more than from Warna, and the whole distance between Achillo and Warna might have been saved; but I was not informed of this circumstance, until some considerable time after my departure from Achillo. This is a fact, which it may be of much importance to travellers going by this route to know; as, in the event of a contrary wind blowing strong, they might, in proceeding by sea, be detained several weeks between Achillo and Warna. Indeed, I should think it would be almost always the surest route to go by land from Achillo to Rustchuk; and I would accordingly have preferred it, had not my servant chosen to conceal from me the existence of such a route, until we could not avail ourselves of it. He probably was induced to do this, by finding the life which he led in the boat very comfortable and much to his taste, having abundance of liquors at hand, to which he did not fail to pay his respects every night whilst I was asleep, with great punctuality and perseverance. Many of the boats and vessels which left the Bosphorus at the same time with us, we found lying at this place. Between Izopoli and Achillo is a deep bay, at the entrance of which is the convent of St. Anastasia, situated on an island called also Izopoli. This building has, at a distance, a fine appearance. In the interior of the bay, we observed several ships and vessels, probably of those that had left the Bosphorus along with us.

From Achillo we proceeded to Messevria, a large village, or rather a small town, situated on a point of land which is said to have been, in ancient times, a place of some note. Many boats and vessels arrived at the same time with us. The buildings have a neater appearance than those of any village we have yet seen, and

the town looks clean. The boatmen, being Greeks, and having heard that some cases of plague existed at Messevrin, were so much alarmed, that they immediately pulled off from the shore and anchored in the road, declining to have any communication with the place. The Turkish boatmen, on the contrary, ran their boats upon the beach, and fearlessly intermixed with the inhabitants.

Having slept here till midnight, we got under weigh, the wind having become fair; and, about two o'clock A. M. on Tuesday, after having slightly touched the ground, we arrived at a point of land, sixteen miles from Achillo, and eight from Messevrin, above which is a village called Emona, and upon it a convent called St. Nicola. This point is forty miles from Warna. In that space, there are numerous villages; but, as we passed them late in the night, we could only occasionally see here and there a light. As day-light advanced, we perceived many vessels of different sizes, standing for and going from Warna; and, did we judge only from what we saw here, and in the different bays and harbours along the coast, without knowing that the vessels seen almost all belonged to the flotilla which sailed at the same time with us from the Bosphorus, we should have concluded the trade of the Black Sea to be immense. In truth, it is very considerable, and in a rapidly progressive state of augmentation. At 12 o'clock on Tuesday, the 21st of October, we arrived at Warna.

The distance coastwise between the mouth of the Bosphorus and Warna, is computed by the boatmen at 300 miles (English), but this I consider as exaggerated. In a straight line, it is said to be no more than seventeen hours' sail, with a fair wind. The large boats that stood out to sea, having arrived before us at Warna, it so happened that I could have arrived sooner, and at a diminished expense of 300 piastres, had I gone in a large boat, as I had once intended, in which I was offered the use of the cabin for 100 piastres, whereas the small boat cost me 400 piastres, and arrived a day later. But I was persuaded to believe that the small boat was both more safe and more certain; and, perhaps, it would have been so; had the wind been otherwise than fair. At any rate the opportunity of observing the villages, inhabitants, and soil, along the coast of the Black Sea, I considered as forming more than an equivalent to the 300 piastres thrown away.

THE CAPE OF STORMS.*

(Written on board the Asia, East Indiaman.)

SPIRIT of Gama ! (1) round the Stormy Cape,
 Bestriding the rude whirlwind as thy steed,
 The thunder-cloud thy car, thy spectre shape
 Gigantic ; who upon the gale dost feed,
 And drink the water-spout,—thy shroud the skies ;
 Thy sport, the south and vast Atlantic Sea ;
 Thine eye, the lightning's flash : awake ! arise !
 From out the deep, in dread and awful sov'reignty !

Now hast thou risen ! By heaven it is a sight
 Most godlike, grand, and glorious to behold ;
 Three elements contend ; and fierce in fight
 As those (2) who warr'd with mighty Jove of old.
 Oh, God ! if any doubt thy being, or rate,
 With vain and impious mind, at nought thy power,
 So may it be such daring sceptic's fate,
 To pass ' The Cape of Storms' when angry tempests lower.

Dost note the gathering clouds, as on through heaven .
 They speed their midway flight, 'twixt sea and skies ;
 Like to the first-born by the Archangel driven
 On earth, with flaming sword, from Paradise ? (3)
 —Dost mark the spirit-stirring of the deep,
 As onward sweeps the stormy hurricane,
 Rous'd, like a roaring lion, from his sleep,
 That wildly stares around, and shakes his shaggy mane ?
 Nor doth he wake in vain. From his abode,
 Hath Ocean risen in terrible array ;
 Magnificent, as when the voice of God (4),
 Call'd forth the world from chaos into day !

* ' A. D. 1486.—Captain Diaz, a Portuguese, passed the extreme point of Africa, to which he gave the name of " The Stormy Cape ;" but King John II., of Portugal, who saw more fully the importance of that discovery, styled it the Cape of Good Hope.'—*Modern History*.

(1) Vasco di Gama, the first who sailed round Africa, by the Cape of Good Hope, to the East Indies.

(2) ' The Titans,' Saturn and others, forty-five in number, who warred against Jupiter.

' As whom the fables name of monstrous size,
 Titanian, or earth-born, that warr'd on Jove.'—*Milton*.

(3) Genesis, chap. iii. Milton's ' Paradise Lost,' book xii.

(4) Ibid., chap. i. Ibid., book vii.

'Tis night,—and now the tempest-shrouded bark,
 With surge-lash'd crest, upborne aloft doth ride
 Upon the heaving billows, vast and dark,
 And braves, as did the Patriarch's ark, (5) the whelming tide.

O God ! it is a fearful sight ! and all around
 Is dismal, drear, and dark—both near and far—
 Save when, to make the darkness more profound
 And visible, some pale and twinkling star
 Peeps, for an instant, forth, and then, as 'twere
 In fear, recedes ;—or the phosphoric dash
 Of wild, long sweeping waves, with horrid glare,
 Lights up the dread abyss, and shines along the splash.

And waste of waters, like to the ' pale horse,' (6)
 Whom Death shall ride upon that awful day,
 When sun, and moon, and stars, have run their course,
 The world, and time (7) itself, be swept away !
 —And now the waning moon would fain forth shine,
 And through the heavens pursue her wonted track :
 But three wild warring elements combine
 At once in unison, and drive her rudely back !

Didst hear that crash,—tremendous as the roar
 Which burst on Sinai's summit, touching heaven,
 When by the Lord, on that all-sacred shore,
 To man in thunder were his mandates (8) given ?
 Didst mark of that destructive element,
 ' Promethean ' named, the fork'd and lurid light,
 With vivid flash, from heaven directly sent,
 Like the lit flame (9) which struck the apostate Saul in night ?

Hark to the rending of the storm-split sail,
 And mark the reed-like quivering of the mast ;
 List ! list ye to the howling of the gale,
 Dreadful as the Archangel's trumpet (10) its blast !

(5) Genesis, chap. vii. v. 17. ' And the waters increased, and bare up the ark.'

(6) Apocalypse, chap. vi. v. 8. ' And I looked, and behold a pale horse, and his name that sat on him was Death, and Hell followed with him.'

(7) Ibid., chap. x. v. 5, 6. ' And the Angel sware by him that liveth for ever and ever, that there should be time no longer.'

(8) Exodus, chap. xix. v. 16, 18. ' And it came to pass on the third day in the morning, that there were thunders and lightning, and a thick cloud upon the Mount. ' And Mount Sinai was altogether on a smoke, because the Lord descended upon it in fire.'

(9) Ibid., chap. ix. v. 3, 4. ' And as he journeyed, he came near Damascus ; and suddenly there shined round about him a light from heaven, and he fell to the earth : and he was for three days without sight.'

(10) Apocalypse.

On such a night, the twelve Disciples cried
In fear, and roused the Saviour from his sleep !
Jesus arose, the elements to chide ;
' Silence, ye angry winds ! and peace, thou troubled deep !' (11)

So spake the Son of God ! and thus allay'd
The storm which howl'd upon the Assyrian shore.
Prompt at his call, the tempest's rage obey'd,
The winds were hush'd, the waters ceased to roar !
—When Royal Canute once, (12) with scepter'd hand,
And robed in pride of earthly majesty
Forbade the sea to dare to lave the land,
The wild waves rose in sport, and roll'd all heedless by !

Jehovah ! What is man compared to thee ?
Or son of man, in mockery of sense,
That he should dare assume the Deity ?
Oh, man ! would'st learn to know thy impotence,
Thy littleness and inferiority ?
Come, hie thee to these regions of the storm,
Behold the face of God upon the sea,
And worship in the gale his dread Almighty form !

But see the darkling spirit of the night,
That brooding safe upon the wat'ry plain,
Flies at the approach of thee, ethereal light !
Awaking now the universe again !
The sea-boy wet, rude nursing of the blast,
Whose sleep was cradled in the dashing spray,
And rock'd upon ' the high and giddy mast,'
Regardless of the storm, unseals his eyes with day.

Ye who would further seek to know of light,
Go, read it as recorded in the page
Of that immortal bard, (13) bereft of sight
Himself,—the godlike Homer of his age !

(11) St. Matthew, chap. viii. v. 24, et seq. ' And behold there arose a great tempest in the sea ; but he was asleep. And his Disciples came and awoke him, saying, Lord save us, or we perish. Then he arose, and rebuked the winds and the sea ; and there was a great calm.'

(12) ' He ordered a chair to be brought, and, as the waves approached, he said, in an imperious tone, "Thou, sea, art under my dominion, I charge thee approach no farther, nor dare to wet the feet of thy sovereign." He even sat some time in seeming expectation of submission ; but, as the sea still advanced towards him, and at last began to wash him with its billows, he turned to his courtiers and observed, that every creature in the universe is feeble and impotent, and that power resides only with one Being, in whose hands are the elements of nature, and who can say to the ocean, "Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther."'*—Anglia Sacra*, vol. i.

(13) ' Paradise Lost,' book iii.

Oh ! for one spark of that celestial flame,
That inspiration, once to Milton given,
Which lit his way to never-dying fame,
The fire, the pomp, and prodigality of Heaven !

In dread magnificence the lurid sun
Now pierces through the tempest-troubled sky,
And drives the thunder-clouds dark rolling on—
As Satan and his rebel tribe (14) were seen to fly
Before the red right arm of God !—No streaks
Of orient purple tinge announce his rise ;
In solitary splendour he awakes,
And seizes, as by storm, at once on all the skies !
Didst mark the whale that dash'd along the deep ?
Hugest of all the ocean-born that roam
Like that Leviathan, whom once, asleep,
The mariner, (as on through ' Norway's foam ' (15)
He steer'd his rude and shatter'd skiff,) at night,
Mistook for land, so vast and still he seem'd,
And anchor'd thus,—then rose in wild affright,
When morning's dawn upon the mighty monster beam'd !

Again he comes ! gigantic as the beast
Of old, that God in mercy sent to save
The prophet Jonah (16) from the foamy yeast
Of waves—his else unknell'd, unshrouded grave !
Three days and nights the slimy monster sped
His wat'ry way, as thus the ' chosen of God ' he bore,
By ' raging floods ' and ' seas uncompassed,'
Then cast him all unscathed upon the Syrian shore.

Hark to the sea-mew's wild and piercing shrieks,
As round the strong-ribb'd bark they hover nigh !
Now o'er the wave's white foam they skim their beaks,
Now far away they speed, and seek the sky.
—But mark the might and majesty of motion
Of him (17) who sweeps, cloud-cleaving, from the height
Of heaven,—it is the Condor (18) of the ocean,
So nobly doth he soar aloft, so bold his flight !

The aspirations of this bird arise
Above those eagles, that are seen afar
O'er Chimborazo, (19) loftiest in the skies
Of Andes—' giant of the western star !'

(14) ' Paradise Lost,' book vi.

(15) *Ibid.*, book i.

(16) *Jonah*, chap. i. ii.

(17) *The Albatross*.

(18) The largest description of eagle known.

(19) Chimborazo, the most majestic and lofty of the Andes. It has

From mountain on to mountain let them urge
 Their narrower flight, and habitations change :
 His resting-place the South Pacific surge,
 All heaven his eyrie, (20) and immensity his range !

Against the conquest-crown'd Dictator's sway (21)
 From Sardis, when the noble Cassius (22) drew
 His legions forth, to battle's stern array—
 E'en such a bird it was, that hovering flew
 Upon his ' former ensign,'—then would feed
 From out the soldiers' hands, and flapping fly
 His broad-extended wings, (23) that seem'd to lead
 The embattled Romans on to certain victory !

But at Philippi (24) sought—he then was gone ;
 And vultures, crows, and kites were seen instead !
 For those whom hope of conquest had flush'd on,
 Now vanquish'd lay—the dying and the dead !
 'Twas such a bird, all wild and young that rose
 When Swedish Charles, with ' soul of fire,' (25) went forth,
 And ' frame of adamant,' (26) mid polar snows,
 To plant his standard, on the steeple (27) of the north.

But, when the fickle fortune of the war, (28)
 As hist'ry tells, on dread Pultowa's day,
 Forsook the warrior-king and woo'd the Czar,
 The bird had wing'd his eagle-flight away !

a circular summit 22,000 feet, or above four miles, high. The bulk of Chimborazo is so enormous, that the part which the eye embraces at once, near the limit of the snows, is 22,968 feet. With the exception of the Himalaya Mountains, Chimborazo is the highest known mountain in the world.

(20) The place where birds of prey build their nests, and hatch.

(21) Augustus and Antony.

(22—24) ' You know that I held Epicurus strong,
 And his opinion,—now, I change my mind,
 And partly credit things that do presage.
 Coming from Sardis, on our former ensign
 Two mighty eagles fell, and there they perch'd,
 Gorging and feeding from our soldiers' hands,
 Who to Philippi here consorted us.
 'This morning are they fled away and gone ;
 And in their steads do ravens, crows, and kites,
 Fly on our heads—their shadows seem
 A canopy most fatal.'—*Julius Cæsar*.

(25—26) Dr. Johnson's ' Vanity of Human Wishes.'

(27) Moscow.

(28) Scarcely any victory was ever attended with more important consequences than that which Peter the Great obtained at Pultowa. The King of Sweden lost in one day the fruits of nine years' successful

On daring pinion borne—'twas such that o'er
The modern Hannibal, was seen to fly
Above St. Bernard's Alpine snows, to soar (29)
To France' proud temple, and unutterably high !

There were who said o'er Lybia's arid waste,
And chief the Pyramids' (30) dim solitude,
The self-same bird his flight had boldly traced,
And once before on Lodi's Bridge (31) been view'd—
To sweep Marengo's (32) field he left the Alps :
A laurel wreath inscrib'd, he wav'd on high ;
Then gain'd with nobler speed their snowy scalps,
The wreath enroll'd, ' NAPOLEON AND VICTORY.'

By Danube's darkly-rolling tide (33) and o'er
The field of Austerlitz (34) on Eylau's (35) plain,
At Friedland, (36) Jena, (37) Berlin, (38) Ulm, (39) once
more

All splendid did he re-appear again !
On Moscow's conflagration,—where the sun
Turn'd ghastly pale, and sicken'd at the sight,
The Eagle saw his race of glory run,
He tried in vain to soar—then shriek'd and sunk in night !

Oh haste ! and look upon yon glorious zone,
The bow of God, which girdles half the sky,
The heavenly arch, by the Almighty (40) thrown
In vast and infinite variety
Of tints most beautiful—th' Immortal's span,
To mortal sight display'd in times of yore,—
The great Creator's covenant (41) with man,
That whelming waters should o'er land prevail no more !

Thou pledge redeemed (42) of the Deity !
To man below in consolation sent !
Thou fairest, brightest vision of the sky !
I hail thee ! dolphin of the firmament !
For each succeeding varied change imbues
Thee with a magic colour, that doth shine
More splendid than before—till all thy hues
* Proclaim thee God at once, like Him thy form divine !

warfare. He had pressed forward, after a variety of obstructions and delays, occasioned by one of the most intense frosts ever known in those northern regions.

(29—39) See the 'Annals of Posterity,' written by the conquering sword of a hero. Motto of the work, '*Mille succès contre un revers.*'

(40—41) Genesis, chap. ix., v. 12. *et seq.* 'I do set my bow in the cloud; and it shall be for a token for a covenant between me and the earth, and the waters shall no more become a flood to destroy.'

(42) Genesis, chap. ix., v. 16. 'And the bow shall be in the cloud,

And, if on earth thy beauty be extreme,
 When view'd o'er mountain-height, or level plain ;
 Far lovelier, far, thy variegated beam,
 Expanded o'er the surface of the main !
 With either horizon thy resting-place,
 Thou mak'st the sea the mirror of thy light ;
 The ocean back reflects thy radiant face,
 Like lovers each beloved—both gazing with delight.
 Jehovah ! with thy name commenced my strain ;
 Jehovah ! with thy name it shall conclude :
 By those (43) alone who track the dark-blue main,
 The grandest of thy wondrous works are view'd !
 I envy not the man whose inward fire
 Of soul expands not, riding o'er the deep—
 Whose mental aspirations soar not higher,
 With the wild waves, ere night behold him laid in sleep.
 For me ! whatever dangers yet may lower
 Upon my life, or errors be my fate ;
 So shall it soothe me in my latest hour,
 That once, at least, I tried to celebrate
 Thy praise, and in thy temple of the sea—
 Its canopy, the clear and cloudless sky—
 That thus I struck the lyre and bent the knee,
 O God ! in homage to thy pow'r and majesty !
 I've little left that makes it worth my while
 To live—my mind, perchance, at times benighted ;
 In scorn, than merriment, I'd rather smile ;
 My heart is sear'd, my best affections blighted !
 And be it so—yet haply, if I dare
 Uplift a suppliant's voice to heav'n, 'twould be,
 That God in mercy might accord my prayer,
 To die a hero's death, in planting (44) Freedom's tree.
 I little reck what soil it be upon,
 So Danger lead, and point to Glory's star ;
 In fighting on the plains of Marathon—
 Or 'neath thy banners, noble Bolivar !

and I will look upon it that I may remember the everlasting covenant between God, and every living thing of all flesh that is upon the earth.'

(43) Psalms—Psalms cvii. 'They that go down to the sea in ships, and occupy their business in great waters. These men see the works of the Lord, and his wonders in the deep.'

(44) 'And England sent her men, of men the chief,
 Who taught those sires of empire yet to be—
 To plant the tree of life—to plant fair Freedom's tree.'

Gertrude of Wyoming.

For, since young Freedom's standard is unfurl'd,
On Athos' crags (45) and Pernambuco's (46) shore,
Alike to me, the east or western world,
So that my soul escape amid the battle's roar.

When life from all its charms is disallied,
When callous gloom succeeds to cherish'd hope ;
'Twere nobler far to fall by Freedom's side,
Than thus to live a moody misanthrope,
Or die a heartless suicide ; since life
Hath ceased to please, what higher aim to me
Remains, than in the rapture (47) of the strife,
To breathe my last upon thine altar, Liberty.

But 'circumstance' is aye one's blight and curse :
It mars our best and brightest hopes—since, then,
It may not be my lot to spur my horse
In Freedom's ranks, and aid my fellow-men,
(Embattled in her sacred cause,) in rending
A tyrant's chains—a bigot's iron crown—
The Patriot's and the Martyr's laurel blending,
And dying strike some Selim or Pizarro down :

Methinks the grandest boon to be bestow'd
By Heav'n on man—the shortest, best relief
From all his mortal sufferings, and load
Which life entails of misery and grief—
The termination of his woes, might be,
As now he braves the billows of the Cape,
To grapple with grim Death upon the sea,
The whirlwind for its courser, and the storm its shape.

So might the bark become his coffin's shell !
The murky cloud enshroud him as his pall—
The roar of distant thunder ring his knell—
The lightning's flash illumine his funeral !
His winding-sheet the wild, white, curling wave,—
The rolling billow, as his bier be lent—
The rain his tears,—the ocean for his grave,
The Cape of Storms itself his mighty monument !

W.

*
On board the Asia.

(45) Athos, a high mountain of Greece, in Macedonia.

(46) See Hist. of South American Conquests.

(47) '*Certaminis Gaudia.*'—*Tacitus*.

LORD GRENVILLE ON INDIAN AFFAIRS.

IN the recent copious extracts which we gave, from the excellent volume entitled, ‘A Further Inquiry into the Expediency of applying the Principles of Colonial Policy to the Government of India,’ we were precluded, by our want of space, from adverting to one of the most curious and interesting parts of the work, contained in the Appendix; but, as the substance of the facts and opinions there detailed is of sufficient importance to warrant our returning to them at any period, we embrace the present opportunity of giving the portion to which we refer a place in our pages:

‘The following abstract of a celebrated speech by Lord Grenville, on the subject of the last renewal of the East India Company’s Charter, still possesses a great and increasing interest, because, though public opinion is considerably in advance of his Lordship’s views on some points, (the great question of Colonisation having arisen and grown to maturity since his time,) yet on other and very material points, especially that of *PATRONAGE*, the weight of so high an authority—the testimony of a practical statesman of the first rank—must continue to be, till the fate of the broad continent of India is decided, of inestimable value.

‘The speech, besides the value of its matter, is deserving of attention for the elegance of its style, always clear and forcible, and rising in some passages to eloquence. It was written out for separate publication by the noble author, and thus it must be considered, as containing the deliberate views and opinions on Indian affairs of a veteran statesman of great talents and tried judgment, whose attention had been directed to the affairs of India in a degree much more than is now common in the English Parliament; from the circumstance, to which he alludes, that, when he first entered public life, party violence was peculiarly directed to that question. It was on that very ground that the government of the empire was disputed between the greatest statesmen of the age.

‘It is probably owing to this early and complete mastery of the subject that Lord Grenville’s speech appears to so great an advantage compared with most of the debates upon the India Bill. The reader sees that his Lordship is discussing a question on which he has clear and distinct ideas, and which enable him to perceive and fix upon the main points without being bewildered in irrelevant questions of subordinate detail.

‘He has given a brief yet distinct view of the state of British India in 1813, and of the general plans for its improvement which suggested themselves to *his* mind. When the question shall come again to be discussed, in what manner India is to be governed, the

clear fulfilment of some of Lord Grenville's anticipations, and the dissipation of many prejudices which prevailed in 1813, will probably occasion his opinions to be referred to with more deference than was paid to them at that time. They will not *then* be received with some jealousy, as the plans of the leader of a hostile party in the Senate, but as the legacy of a statesman who has retired from public life.

‘As an instance of his keen glance through the mists of prejudice and ignorance, and of the beauty of his illustrations, we may quote the passage where he shows his just contempt for the mass of evidence which had been produced at the bar of the House, to prove that the trade with India could not be increased. A host of persons, eminent from their names or their places, who had resided in that country as governors, councillors, colonels, judges, &c., were marshalled in array at the bar to prove this. Sir Thomas Munro and Sir John Malcolm were at their head; and many people were content to believe that, because these men were avowedly skilful in collecting revenue or negotiating treaties, therefore they were competent witnesses on other points, of which they had no experience and could form no judgment. The books of the Custom-house have long since proved the utter absurdity of the conjectural opinions which they delivered, with a very natural bias towards their “reverend and approved good masters.” Lord Grenville, at the time, pointed out, in the following passage, that their opinions were of no value whatever, and, by his parallel suppositions, has both indicated the causes of their error, and shown that it was no impeachment to their general sagacity.

“To what extent this trade may then be carried, presumptuous indeed would be the man who shall now venture to pronounce. On what evidence, what conjecture, would he found his judgment? What present knowledge, what past experience of India could possibly decide that question? ‘No commerce,’ Trebatius or Quintus Cicero, returning from a campaign in Britain would probably have informed the Roman Senate, ‘no commerce can ever be carried on with that uncivilised, uncultivated island, divided absolutely from the whole world by tempestuous and unnavigable seas, and inhabited only by naked and houseless barbarians.’—‘No commerce,’ some sage counsellor of Henry or Elizabeth might, with equal authority, have assured those monarchs, ‘can ever be opened with the dreary wilderness of North America, a land covered with impenetrable forests, the shelter only of some wandering tribes of the rudest and most ferocious savages.’ Yet of these predictions the folly might be palliated by inexperience. In the defect of better knowledge, such conjectures might even pass for wisdom. But what shall we say of those who deny the possibility, not of opening new sources for the commerce of mankind, but of enlarging its present channels,—who tell us that the trade which we now carry

on with India, must, in all future time, be limited to its actual amount? Strange and unprecedented necessity! which has thus set bounds to human industry and enterprise, arrested the progress of commercial intercourse, and, by some blasting and malignant influence, blighted the natural increase of social improvement. With full and confident assurance may we repel these idle apprehensions. By commerce, commerce will increase, and industry by industry. So it has ever happened, and the great Creator of the world has not exempted India from this common law of our nature. The supply, first following the demand, will soon extend it. By new facilities, new wants and new desires will be produced; and neither climate, nor religion, nor long-established habits, no, nor even poverty itself, the *greatest of all present obstacles*, will ultimately refuse the benefits of such an intercourse to the Native population of that empire. They will derive from the extension of commerce, as every other people has uniformly derived from it, new comforts and new conveniences of life, new incitements to industry, and new enjoyments, in just reward of increased activity and enterprise.”

‘Lord Grenville commences his speech with some remarks on those of Lord Wellesley and Lord Buckinghamshire, who had spoken before him. After some compliments to the brilliant Indian Administration of the former, he remarks that the latter had, with great propriety, pointed out the real nature of the duty now cast upon Parliament:—“He has reminded us (I think it has been frequently overlooked in discussing the subject elsewhere) that our present deliberation embraces the whole question of our future relations with India: the Government of a vast empire, and the regulation of the British commerce with every port and country between the southern promontories of Africa and America. It is a deception to speak of any existing rights by which this immense and momentous consideration can now be circumscribed. The charter of the East India Company was granted only for a limited period: for limited periods it has ever since been renewed, with the express purpose, that at their expiration the matter should revert entire to the free disposition and deliberative wisdom of Parliament. The trusts and duties of that great corporation, its commercial and its political monopolies, will all expire together, on the lapse of the term for which they were created. All public right, all public interest in the subject, will thenceforth devolve on the British Legislature, exercising an unrestrained but sound discretion; bound by no previous grant, fettered by no existing law, and having regard only to the principles of moral duty, and to the rules of a wise policy and enlightened Government.

“On precedents we can here have no reliance. The situation is new; the subject on which we are to legislate knows no example. Our former measures would be deceitful guides. They

were experiments not always successful, and, at the best, calculated only for limited duration ; never permanent, nor ever meant for permanence ; temporary in their nature, and continually varying with the progressive variations of our interest and power in a country where our situation has never yet been stationary. To the extent and to the condition of our present Asiatic empire, they appear to me utterly inapplicable ; and, so far from wishing, with my noble friend who opened this discussion, to perpetuate those anomalous and imperfect arrangements, I am persuaded that we are not yet arrived at the period when any final regulation on the subject can be safely established. Whatever we may now do, I deprecate the idea of placing it out of the reach of revisal. I object even to that part of the resolutions on your table which would establish them, by an irrevocable compact, unchangeable for twenty years. Twenty years would, at any time, be much too long a period for farming out the commerce of half the globe and the sovereignty of sixty millions of men. Those who advised the last renewal of the charter, had ample reason, during its continuance, to regret that they had placed out of the hands of Parliament so considerable a portion of the national interests. How much more inexcusable would such an error now appear, when the events, not of the next twenty years, but of the next *twenty months*, may be decisive of the whole fate and fortunes of the British Empire ! This improvidence, I trust, we shall avoid." *

He proceeds then to remark that it is important to keep in mind that this was not a mere question regarding the interests and privileges of the East India Company, but that there was a preferable and higher duty which ought first to be discharged.

"Consider" (says the orator) "the relation in which we stand to India. The British nation is now sovereign in that country. To the imperial crown of the United Kingdom, whatever we there possess of interest, territory, or dominion, is of right annexed. *To argue the fact of British Sovereignty in India, would be an insult on the understanding of my hearers.* To ask whether any territory, dominion, or political authority, in any quarter of the globe, can be conquered by British arms or acquired by British negotiators, *otherwise than to the British Crown*, is simply to ask whether we live under a monarch or a republic. Our Government knows no regal power but in the king ; in him alone all sovereignty is vested—with him it indefeasibly resides ; to be exercised not by his individual and personal discretion, as in despotic monarchies, but under the sanction and limits of the laws, through the channels of his regular government, and with the advice and consent of his necessary and constitutional councils. It is from this principle alone that we our-

* * It is a remarkable fact, that, in 1813, Mr. Canning also proposed that the exclusive trade to China should be continued only for ten years, and divided the House upon that proposition.²

selves derive any authority to make laws for India. No territories to which the king's sovereignty did not extend, could, by any possible pretence, be subjected to the legislative authority of his Parliament.

“What are the duties which this sovereignty imposes and the order in which they should be discharged? The very reverse of that in which, I am sorry to say, they have hitherto been most commonly regarded.

“Must we not, in the first instance, consult the welfare of the country for which we undertake to legislate? Are we not bound, above all other considerations, to provide for the moral improvement of its people, and for their social happiness; for the security of their property and personal freedom; for the undisturbed enjoyment of the fruits of their industry; for the protection and extension of their agriculture, manufactures, and commerce; the peace and good order of their provinces, and the impartial administration of their laws? *These are duties which attach on government in all its forms; the price and the condition of obedience; sacred obligations, from which no sovereign power can ever be released; due from all who exact to all who pay allegiance.*

“Next to these objects, *but far below them in the scale of moral duty*, is the attention which we must also pay to the interests of our own country, deeply implicated in this discussion. Nor let us hastily suppose that these duties, however apparently distinct, are really at variance with each other. Far from it. Pursued with sincerity, and on the principles of a just and liberal policy, there exists between them a close connexion,—a necessary and mutual dependence. *The attachment of conquered provinces can be secured only by good government*: the resources which they can furnish to the metropolis must be proportioned to the prosperity which they themselves enjoy.

“How, then, shall we best discharge these mixed and concurrent obligations? What system of British Government in India shall carry to its highest pitch of attainable advantage our connection with those vast dominions? In what manner shall it enrich the metropolis without impoverishing the province, render the increase of our own commerce an extension, not a transfer of theirs, and draw from them, without injury to their prosperity, a just proportion of revenue, not as a tribute wrung from misery, but as the willing retribution of gratitude, for protection and good government, enjoyed in substance and not in name? By what laws, what judicatures, what responsibility, shall we prevent the oppression of distant subjects, submissive to all power, and incapable, in the present state of their manners, habits, and opinions, utterly incapable, of political freedom? How reconcile with their progressive improvement, with the gradual diffusion of light and knowledge, the deference due to their subsisting institutions? How shall we teach

them to bless the hour which subjected them to the British crown—to venerate, as the source of their happiness, the dominion of a nation just, because it is free, careful of the rights of others in proportion as it is jealous of its own, and displaying the pre-eminence of superior knowledge in its best and noblest form, the dignity of superior virtue?"

'He proceeds to state, that the next step he would advise, after having first asserted the sovereignty of the Crown over India, would be to separate its Government from *all* admixture with *mercantile interests or mercantile transactions*.

'“The very existence of this blended character of sovereign and merchant, on which our whole Indian system is now built up, appears to me an anomaly inconsistent with all true principles of government, reprobated by all authority, and condemned by all experience. No sovereign, I confidently believe, has ever yet traded to profit: no trading company, I greatly fear, has ever yet administered government for the happiness of its subjects.”

'As an illustration of the unfitness of this blended character for its trading functions, Lord Grenville states, on the authority of Lord Wellesley, adding that he believes his assertion is much within the truth, that, since the last renewal of their Charter, they had lost on their trade four millions sterling; and that the only profitable trade which they carried on was with China, where they had no sovereignty. He asserts that the compound body had been found to perform its governing functions quite as ill for near twenty years after the acquisition of the Dewance. “During that period, scarce five years, scarce three years, can be found in which the inherent vices of that form of administration, and the consequent oppression and misery of its subject provinces, did not forcibly compel the interposition of Parliament. All men were agreed that the *political direction* of India must be transferred from the East India Company, and placed under the *complete control* of the *public councils*.” Fox and Burke proposed to do this openly. The Company resisted vigorously, and succeeded in preventing “Carlo Khan's triumphant entry into Leadenhall-street.”* In this campaign they were assisted by Mr. Pitt,—and they fared like other sovereigns who have called in too powerful an ally. To escape from a Board of Commissioners who would have pushed them from their chairs, they accepted Pitt's Board of Control; but, when the full powers of this Board were afterwards unfolded to them, on a dispute taking place with the Ministry, they found that their patronage indeed remained, but that their political power was departed. From the year 1784, the superintendence of all the political affairs

* ‘This was the title of a very clever caricature, that made a great sensation in its time: Fox, in Asiatic robes, was drawn seated on an elephant with Lord North's face, and advancing in triumphant procession to the India House; Burke marched before him blowing a trumpet.’

of India has resided in the Board of Control, and, in fact, in the President of that Board. *That* Government has still been exercised, indeed, in the name of the Company, as the Company has also used the name of the Asiatic Powers, whose misrule it superseded; but both the control and the responsibility of all political measures are vested, by law, in the public servants of the state. The commerce and the patronage of the Company are alone excepted; but, on *all other* matters which any way concern the public interests in India, it is the office and the duty of the King's Commissioners, at their discretion, to exercise a complete and unqualified political control. It is *their* function to erase, to add, to alter, and, in the default of the Directors, to originate those instructions which, by law, the public servants in India are bound implicitly to obey. If, therefore, the Government of India has been materially ameliorated since 1784,—if there is more purity in the public functionaries, and a greater and more systematic desire to conduct the Government for the benefit of the governed,—if the demands of the Exchequer have been limited, and the channels of justice have been purified,—Lord Grenville claims the merit for the King's Government, which was the real moving and directing power in the new system of government. The Company, it has been seen, retained their commerce and their patronage. The former he now proposed to leave to them entirely, and to take away the patronage altogether. "From the union of merchant and sovereign, in any form, his judgment revolts as every where incompatible, in a Cabinet as much as in a trading company." He would not, therefore, give Ministers the smallest right to interfere with the commercial concerns of the Company. They should manage them entirely as they pleased; it being clearly, however, understood, that *their* commercial agents, who purchase silk, cotton, &c., in the interior of the country, would no longer meet with any partiality or special indulgence from the judges and collectors of the *Indian Government*, which would render even-handed justice, and impose equal duties of customs and other taxes upon the merchandize of the great Company and upon that of all other trading companies. It would be for them to consider whether, under these circumstances, they could carry on a profitable trade, when relieved from the cares of government; or how long their patriotism would induce them to conduct a losing commerce. That they did so before 1813 their advocates proclaimed, and boasted of it.

' On the great question of the patronage of India, Lord Grenville enters at much length; and his observations on this subject are so original and important, that they will undoubtedly attract notice whenever the subject shall again come before Parliament.

' He avows that he retains unchanged the opinions he held in 1784, that, if this influence were vested in the Crown, or in any political party, it must weigh down the balance of the Government.

But he asks, is there no other course? Because we fear to give it to a party, must we therefore vest it in an exclusive corporation? "Has the East India Company itself been always found quite disconnected with the political divisions of the state? or is it absolutely certain that in their hands the patronage of India can never be abused?" He then proceeds to examine this question; and, first, he distinguishes what is too often confounded, the *patronage* of advancement in rank and office, and the *patronage* of appointment to the Service.

'The selection of those who are to exercise the supreme civil and military authorities in India, had been for a long time influenced by the King's Ministers; and Lord Grenville recommends, as far more constitutional, that the responsibility of the nomination should attach to them openly. But with respect to the offices of inferior trust, including all below the Councils, he observes that the general course of nomination, both in the civil and military line, has rested where, unquestionably, it ought to rest, with the Governments on the spot, under certain limitations of selection fixed by law. And he remarks, that those legal securities against abuse would apply with equal, perhaps with greater efficacy, to the same Services, administered under the constitutional security of the crown.

"The local Governments are best qualified to discriminate the characters of those who act immediately under their inspection. They are most immediately concerned to reward the merit, to discountenance the misconduct, of those who are to act under their orders.

"But undoubtedly a power in itself so considerable, and administered at so great a distance, cannot be, nor is it, left without limitation. The law has done much to remove the opportunity, and with it the temptation, to abuse. By the Act of 1784, an invariable course of succession by seniority was established, both for the civil and the military Service in India. By that of 1793, the strict letter of this rule was a little, and but a little, relaxed. Under that law, fixed classes and gradations of office have been established in India, of rank and value proportioned to the length of service, by which alone any servants, even the most meritorious, can be qualified to hold them. Within these limits, all exercise of patronage is restrained, and the effective operation of this principle has been considerably extended by a judicious, but perhaps still imperfect, separation of the lines of civil service. But by far the most important provision, without which no other could be effectual, is found in those clauses of the Act of 1784, which corrected the abuse of appointing to high stations in India persons new to that Service. No office under the Government of our Indian Empire can now be conferred except upon its regular servants, sent out in early youth, and trained to superior trust by the correct discharge of subordinate employments. When your Lordships consider, therefore, the

jealousy with which the execution of all these regulations is watched by a whole body of public servants, whose prospects depend on their observance; and, when you further reflect that the persons from whom the selection must in every case be made, are few in number, and that they have all originally been named in the outset of their life by various choice, unmixed with politics, and from different classes of society, it will no longer surprise you to be assured that the political divisions of the state have, under this system, found no admission into the exercise of Indian patronage.

“But how can it possibly be shown that these wise provisions of the law, this salutary course and gradation of public service, depend upon the East India Company’s authority? The King’s Civil Service in India, should such be its future appellation, would equally subsist under the same regulations, secured in the same prospects, animated to the same exertions, protected by the same just interposition of the law, against the noxious influence of political intrigue, and deriving only fresh distinction to themselves, and fresh respect among the Powers of India, from the stamp and sanction of royal authority.”

“No less distinct is the outline which he traces for the transfer of the Indian army to the Crown.

“To blend, as has been sometimes recommended, into one indiscriminate mass the general army of the Crown and the local force of India, would be the inevitable ruin of the Empire. I have no doubt of it. The military patronage of the Crown, already so great, would then exceed all bounds; we should lose the inestimable advantage of local education, knowledge, and habits, so necessary for the command of Native troops: and the unjust partialities, preferences, and supercessions, to which the distant Service would infallibly be exposed, must soon break down its military character: must, too, probably renew, I shudder to pronounce it, the criminal scenes which we have so lately witnessed, of mutiny and public rebellion.

“Very different is the system on which I am disposed to hope that this valuable army might be taken as a distinct force, under the King’s immediate protection and command. Preserving to it all its local character and local advantages; securing to it a complete parity of rank and promotion with the King’s general army; and blending only the staff of both into one body of General officers, qualified by commission, as well as by merit and service, and called, by habitual and discriminate appointment, to exercise command over British troops in every quarter of the world. These details, however, are not for this day’s discussion. It is sufficient for our present purpose to remark, that the rules of gradation now actually existing in that Service, and guaranteed to it by law, must be broken down, before it can become, in the hands of the Crown, any more than in those of the Company, an object of political pa-

tronage. And if these rules are thought insufficient, let them be strengthened and enforced. The nature and composition of an Indian army, its duties, its rewards, and its prospects, will be found, by those who consider the question attentively, to admit and to require rules of succession much stricter than are consistent with the general principles of military advancement."

'The *patronage of advancement* and promotion being thus lodged where it now resides, in the local Government, under the sanction and restrictions of law, there remains the *patronage of appointment*, the original nomination of writers, cadets, and assistant-surgeons—a matter in itself of far less magnitude and importance, but which has generally been mixed up with the other through confusion of ideas or ignorance, and sometimes from an intention to magnify the amount of influence to be transferred. But, while Lord Grenville objects to this patronage being vested in the Ministry, he shows how easily it might be so disposed as to provide amply and efficiently for the wants of the Service in India.

"It remains to speak of the youths by whom these Services must be recruited; the *writers*, as they are called, and the *cadets*, who are to rise successively to the highest functions of civil and military trust. They are now named by private patronage; nor would I ever consent to vest this influence in the King's Ministers. Not merely because it is itself greatly too large to be so given without necessity, but much more because all possible security for the due exercise of patronage in India, depends on the disconnection of the great body of the public servants there from the domestic parties in our state. But is it therefore necessary that these appointments should be made by the East India Company? Or does not the very same principle apply, though doubtless in a less degree, as an objection against their exercising such a trust? Can it be supposed that the control over the conduct of these public servants will always be justly exercised by those with whom their appointment has originated? In whatever hands the government of India shall now be placed, it is just, it is necessary to provide some new course of impartial, and what is not less important, of mixed selection, for keeping up your civil and military Service in the country. Nor can the task be difficult. Innumerable are the modes in which it might be accomplished. The most obvious course would be to choose the young men, who are destined for the Civil Service by free competition and public examination, from our great schools and universities: to name the cadets, not by the choice of any man but by some fixed course of succession, from the families of office who have fallen in the public service. In this manner would the patronage of India, instead of contributing to political influence, to private gratification, serve as a reward of merit, as an encouragement of valour, learning, and religion, and as an honourable discharge of public gratitude: and the persons destined hereafter

administer the government of millions would be those only who, even in their earliest youth, had afforded some promise of superior talent, diligence, and virtue.

“ On this branch of the subject your Lordships will think that I have too long detained you. But it is only by such details that loose and general assertions can be brought to issue, that imaginary fears and groundless prejudices can be dispelled. It must, I think, be clear to every one, that the apprehensions entertained on this point are of that description.—Your Lordships may doubt, on other grounds, whether or not to separate the commerce from the government of India. This, at least, is certain, that their union contributes nothing to the security of the British Constitution.” *

‘ Akin to the question of the appointment of fit persons for the Civil Service, is the scarcely less important inquiry how they are to be trained for the Service; and Lord Grenville’s remarks on the establishment of a separate college in England, for this purpose, are well deserving of attention :

“ If I speak of this plan as I think of it, with strong disapprobation and regret, let it not be inferred that I object to any degree of attention which can be given to the earliest instruction and discipline of those who are destined for Indian service;—far from it. No man will more rejoice in this than I shall—no man more zealously contend for its advantage. But I can never persuade myself that it was justifiable to form, for that purpose, a separate establishment in England. It may be doubted at what age these youths may most advantageously be sent to India. But, up to the latest moment of their continuance in this country, be that period what it may, I see the strongest possible reasons against their being separated in education from the young men of their own age and station in life. Instead of forming them beforehand into an exclusive class, into something resembling a distinct *caste* of men, destined to administer government in remote provinces, they ought, above all other public servants, to receive, so long as they continue in England, an education purely English. Instead of rejecting, we should, I think, have embraced with eagerness the advantage which our great schools and universities would have afforded to them for this purpose: that they might learn there, I trust, with not less facility than elsewhere, the elements of whatever sciences you could wish them to possess: that, in addition to these, they might find there, and there only could they find, that best of all education to a public man, which forms the mind to manly exertion and honourable feeling,—the education which young men receive from each other in the numerous and mixed society of their equals, collected from various classes of our community, and destined to various ways of life: that they might there be imbued with the deepest tincture of English manners and English attachments, of English principles, and I am not afraid, in this case, to say also English prejudices ;

and that they might carry out with them, from thence to India, remembrances and affections, not local only, but personal; recollections not merely of the scenes, but of the individuals, endeared to them by early habit, mixed with the indelible impression of those high sentiments and virtuous principles which, I am happy to think it, float in the very atmosphere of our public places of education, and contribute, much more, I think, than is commonly supposed, to all on which we most value ourselves in our national character."

' Having thus explained the outlines of his own plan, he proceeds to examine the usual arguments which were brought forward to show that there was in India some special cause, some local and peculiar necessity, for uniting *there* the functions of commerce and sovereignty, which are every where else so carefully discriminated. The commercial and political accounts of the Company had long since been blended into one texture, so complicated in its fabric, so artificially and intricately interwoven, that the separation seemed nearly impracticable. "A late Committee of the House of Commons had judged it impossible to unravel them, and had, accordingly, laid before the House, not an *account*, but an *estimate* of what *had been* the Company's profit and loss on their commerce for the last twenty years!" The first proposition with which Lord Grenville grapples is the advantage asserted to be derived to India, from a portion of the Revenue being applied to the purchase of the Company's investment for the English market. Instead of the usual admiration of this process, which is to be found in so many pamphlets and speeches, Lord Grenville characterises it as a system equally adverse to the prosperity of our own provinces, and to the just claims of the British merchant to a free participation in their commerce. "We have been reminded," says he, "that for the very purpose of manufacturing the cloths, of which the investment is afterwards to be composed, advances are, in the first instance, made to the weavers from the public treasuries of India: and this is pointed to as a gratifying proof of the advantages resulting to the Indians, from a Government which combines the functions of merchant and sovereign. I am," says his Lordship, "surprised at hearing this practice relied on as beneficial to the country!"

' "It may have become necessary to the maintenance of this involved and complicated system. I do not deny it. But in that case how much must we abate of the confidence which we should all so gladly have reposed in the glowing representations of Indian prosperity! What, let me ask you, what is the real condition of an empire whose industry is supported only by advances made from its revenues? In countries impoverished and exhausted by a long course of public calamity, and in those where no commercial capital has ever yet grown up, commerce, I am well aware, is sometimes carried on solely by the credit and resources of the exporting merchant; and in those cases a gradual accession of wealth will, in the

ordinary course of trade, accrue to the nation which thus attracts the capital of others; and the very evil itself, such are the beneficent dispensations of Providence, will finally remedy the distress in which it had originated. But how widely different from this is the case where the capital which sets to work the industry of a people is furnished only from the taxes which they pay; where the sovereign, himself the exporting merchant, sends out their manufacture without return; himself the internal trader, purchases it only from their own resources; himself the master manufacturer, maintains the artisan at the cost of the labourer; and, claiming to be himself, also, the paramount proprietor of the soil, actually collects in kind the raw material in payment of his territorial revenue. By what part of such a trade can the country profit? What freedom, what security, what competition can exist in commerce so conducted? What health or vigour in the community which thus draws from its own veins the only nourishment by which the vital circulation is maintained? We may hope, indeed,—I speak it not in flattery, but in the sincere conviction of my heart,—that the spirit which pervades our Indian Service, the liberal and enlightened principles on which the public interests are there considered, and the anxious solicitude displayed on every occasion for the prosperity of the people whose government we administer, do afford, in the execution of this system, every possible alleviation which, from its nature, it is capable of receiving. Nor am I unapprised that, under still greater discouragements than these, such is the elastic force of human industry, when secured in peace and protected by law, the population, the products, and the wealth of any country will increase; and most especially of one so highly favoured in soil and climate. But the system itself, unless I greatly misconceive it, is fruitful only in evil. It exhibits the hand of Government not fostering the improvement of its people, but pressing on their industry in every stage, interfering with all their occupations, and meeting them in every market with the public purse. It raises and depresses, arbitrarily, the sale of their produce and manufactures, by transactions too large for counteraction, too uncertain for private speculation; founded on no just combination of mercantile adventure, but regulated solely by principles of political convenience, the state of the public treasury, and the estimated increase or diminution of the national expenditure."

'The exclusive trade had been often contended for as a necessary channel for remitting to England the surplus revenue or tribute. Lord Grenville seems reluctant to acknowledge the fitness of such a demand, which he observes must still be in some degree detrimental to the prosperity of India.

"It is a drain for which no return is made but in protection and good government. Yet, if conducted through the medium of an open trade, and limited most scrupulously in the amount by a due

consideration of the condition of the country which supplies them, I see no reason to believe them inconsistent with its rapid and permanent improvement. This is the ordinary condition of a dependant and tributary province. What I object to is that peculiar course of policy which not only exacts the tribute but monopolises the commerce, compels the payment, and forestalls the resources which should provide it. And this too in a country where few and inconsiderable offices of civil trust, where no office of military trust is as yet in the hands of the Natives: where the fortunes realised by all who govern, and by almost all who trade, are at no distant period remitted also to the metropolis. It is, indeed, this last circumstance which is, in my judgment, by far the most alarming in the nature of our connection with India. How the pressure which this produces can ever be resisted, is a fearful consideration.

“What a powerful motive does it then suggest to us for throwing open the ports and markets of India to British capital and enterprise, for inviting to her harbours the ships and merchants of every quarter of the globe, and securing to her, as far as legislation can secure it, the fullest benefit of the most unqualified commercial freedom! If evil so extensive and alarming must unavoidably result to her from her subjection to a distant sovereignty, let it at least be compensated by the unrestricted enjoyment of all her local advantages. The anxiety which I feel (I have already so stated it) is not for the transfer but for the extension of Indian commerce; not, as some have expressed it, to give to Englishmen the benefit of that trade which foreigners now enjoy, but to give to India the benefit both of British and of foreign trade. To administer those vast possessions on any principles of colonial monopoly would be impracticable, if it were just; would be unjust, if it were practicable. *In a British House of Lords I trust we are not deliberating on the means of ruling sixty millions of men in sole subserviency to our own advantage*; nor, if this were our object, should I consider the establishment of such a system as in any manner calculated to promote it. But it is as much the moral duty of a British statesman to consult the prosperity of that, as of every other portion of our empire. Subjects of the same sovereign, members of the same community, we submit ourselves with equal obedience to the same Legislature, and we are entitled to receive from it the same protection: varied indeed in form, and adapting itself in its regulations to the difference of local situation and moral character; but directed always with an impartial hand to the same common object, that of promoting the strength and greatness of the whole, by carrying to the utmost practicable height the prosperity of every part.

“For the encouragement of such hopes no moment was ever yet more favourable. The barrier of prejudice is shaken; the spirit of monopoly is rapidly giving way to juster principles of commercial legislation; and the change of public opinion in this country is

seconded by the great revolutions of the world. Why should we then delay to grant to the British merchant all for which he now contends; all that the exclusive charter of the East India Company has hitherto closed against him; all and *more than all* that *these resolutions* propose to open to the people of this empire? A free trade with India, a *free trade with China*; with the eastern islands, the latest acquisition of British valour; and through them with the rich kingdoms of South America; a country hitherto, indeed, barred against us as much by the monopolies of its parent Government as by our own, but now at last by the course of events no longer within the control of man, opened, in every case, I trust, infallibly opened, to the commerce of the world.

“What a scene does this present to our imagination! We are told that when the Spanish discoverers first overcame, with labour and peril almost unspeakable, the mighty range of mountains which divides the Western from the Atlantic shores of South America, they stood fixed in silent admiration, gazing on the vast expanse of the Southern Ocean, which lay stretched before them in boundless prospect. They adored, even those hardened and sanguinary adventurers, the gracious providence of Heaven, which, after the lapse of so many centuries, had opened to mankind so wonderful a field of untried and unimagined enterprise. They anticipated, in prophetic enthusiasm, the glory of their native country, the future extent of its sovereignty and power, and the noble prize presented to its ambition. But theirs was the glory of conquest, the ambition of war, the prize of unjust dominion. As vast as theirs, but infinitely more honourable, for higher both in purposes and in recompense, are the hopes with which the same prospect now elevates our hearts. Over countries yet unknown to science, and in tracts which British navigation has scarcely yet explored, we hope to carry the tranquil arts, the social enjoyments, the friendly and benevolent intercourse of commerce. By the link of mutual interest, by the bond of reciprocal good-will, we hope to connect together the remotest regions of the earth; humble and weak, but not rejected instruments of that great purpose of our Creator, by which he has laid, in the reciprocal necessities both of individuals and of nations, the firmest ground-work of all human society. Let this be our glory, and what conqueror will not have reason to envy it?”

“After this eloquent peroration, Lord Grenville hastens rapidly to the close of his speech. There are, however, one or two other points (he observes) so important, that he must detain the House a little longer by some brief remarks upon them. One of them is the question of extending the Permanent Settlement; and it is interesting to read the sentiments on this great question of a veteran statesman, who had taken a share in the discussions which ended in Parliament’s enjoining this measure upon the Indian Government.”

“The most considerable among the benefits which my noble

friend enumerated, as having been conferred by the British Government on the Natives of India, was that arrangement which is technically called the Permanent Settlement. Your Lordships are well aware that this consisted in fixing the amount of territorial revenue, to be annually collected from the landholders of our provinces, instead of leaving it to be varied from year to year at the discretion of Government, on the reports of its officers, and according to the supposed ability of the person assessed. This certainty of taxation, which would be so important in every country, was of the utmost possible value in provinces where so much the largest part of the public revenue is raised from the proprietors of the soil: bearing a proportion of its produce, which has been differently estimated by persons the best informed, but which, *even by the lowest calculation*, is of *frightful* amount. The measure was first adopted in the Bengal provinces, and it has since been extended to some other parts of our possessions in India. To enlarge upon its advantages before a British audience, would seem superfluous. Until very lately, I thought they had been generally admitted; but the late report of a Committee of the House of Commons has filled me with anxiety on this subject. That report treats of the question of applying the same beneficial principle to the more recent acquisitions by which our territory in India has been so largely extended; and no man, I fear, can read what is there said without perceiving its tendency, if not to discredit the original measure, at least to discountenance its proposed extension. My noble friend who opened this discussion, agreeing with me in principle, but not fully partaking of my alarm, has nevertheless himself described the expressions of this paper as ambiguous. Be it so. I will only then remark that in *former times*, the reports of Parliament were not expressed with ambiguity, when they enforced the duties of protection and justice towards our Native subjects. I would, if it were possible, most willingly persuade myself, that not the language of this report alone, but also the language of the public despatches which it quotes, is really ambiguous. To my understanding they too plainly speak their purpose. But most sincerely shall I rejoice in the assurance that my apprehensions are ill-founded. If they are so, it is of easy proof. No one can then object to the proposal which I shall hereafter submit to your Lordships; a proposal to obtain from Parliament, in the law which we are now to pass, the same interposition, couched in the same terms, and directed to the same object which in the Act of 1784 has proved so eminently beneficial. To remind us that so important a measure as this cannot be duly executed but after some previous deliberation and inquiry, and on such information as is really necessary to enable our Indian Government to do justice to those for whose benefit it is intended, is only to say of this what is equally true of every other momentous and extensive arrangement. I wish it to be so proceeded in. But it is now, I think, between seven and eight years since peace was restored to India. A considerably longer term has elapsed since the

acquisition of some of the provinces in question. The settlement itself, whenever it shall be made, will probably be established in the first instance, as was done by Lord Cornwallis, in Bengal, for ten years only, to be then made permanent after an experience of its effects. And if it be not yet time to begin upon such a work, *when is it to be concluded?* To obtain theoretic perfection in these arrangements, is manifestly impossible. It was the opinion of Lord Cornwallis, a sentiment I think not less wise than humane, that less evil was to be feared from the partial errors of such a measure than from its delay. And such, I am persuaded, is the experience of the fact.

“But my present object is only to declare the principle, such as it was declared in 1784; to place, by our new law, the future Government of India, be it what it may, under the same injunction which was imposed by the former Act on the King's Commissioners: and to apply to the ceded and conquered provinces the same benevolent interposition which Parliament before applied to the provinces then under our dominion. Above all, it is my wish, by this solemn and authoritative declaration, renewed after the experience of so many years, *to prove to our Native subjects the permanency of our principles of right*, and to impress them with the unalterable conviction, that a British Legislature estimates the security of their property far above the possible increase of its own revenue.”

“The length to which he had extended his remarks upon the general principles which should be adopted in the government of India, left him no time (he observes) to enlarge upon many details of great moment. He therefore declines entering “upon the defects of the judicial system of these provinces, or into the present state of their internal legislation and police, providing (as it too plainly appeared from the reports upon the table) in no adequate manner for the personal protection and security of the people. Neither (he proceeds) will I discuss the question of taxation. Though I trust in the ultimate conclusion of our measure, *it cannot happen* that this power should, in any part of the British Empire, be left to the discretion of the Executive Government, to be exercised without the authority, without even the knowledge of Parliament, and to extend over the whole property and dealings, both of your Native subjects, and even of British merchants resorting to that country.”

The last is a remarkable passage, when compared with the late discussions at the bar, regarding the true meaning and intent of the 98th and 99th clauses of the Act of Parliament which was passed after all these debates. Lord Grenville declares his most explicit objection to any vague powers of taxation in India being left to the discretion of the Executive Government, “to be exercised without the authority, without even the knowledge, of Parliament.” And, as the famous 98th and 99th sections, authorising the imposition of customs and other taxes, passed without any opposition or re-

mark from his Lordship, we must fairly conclude that he did not construe those enactments in the wide sense which has since been given to them. He was unconscious, as the other parties most concerned appeared to have long continued, what a numerous brood of taxes they carried in their womb, to come forth after the long gestation of fourteen years.

STANZAS SENT WITH A WREATH OF VIOLETS.

THE Rose in its flush of crimson pride,
 For the lovely and gay,
 And the Lily white, let the youthful bride
 On her brow display ;
 A Myrtle sprig for the tried and the true,
 Is offering meet ;
 And freshest, greenest Laurels strew
 At the conqueror's feet.
 But, oh ! for the heart that is breaking fast,
 With its vision of bliss for ever past,
 Bring, ere life's sun is in darkness set,
 The crush'd and the wither'd Violet !
 They have brought me pale flowers, whose purple light
 Is faded and gone !
 O ! they look like the records of days that were bright,
 Now shadow'd and flown !
 Yet fragrance still haunts and hallows the leaves,
 Like the odorous spell
 Of mystic enchantment kind Memory weaves,
 From joys we loved well !
 The essence they caught from Spring's early breath,
 Like Love that is constant, they yield but in death ;
 Oh ! then, ere life's sun is in darkness set,
 Bring, bring me the sweet faithful Violet !
 I would not a glittering jewel should be
 The gift which last,
 From the hand and the heart of the loving, to thee,
 The lov'd one, pass'd !
 No—India's rich gems are a pompous dower,
 And to pride belong ;
 Love breathes remembrance in lowly flower,
 Or plaintive song—
 Take thou, then, my gift, and whenever thine eye
 Meets the Violet's, bestow on thy fond girl a sigh,
 O ! then, though life's sun be in darkness set,
 I shall still live to thee in the Violet !

STRIKING INCIDENT IN THE LIFE OF A MIDSHIPMAN.

I HAVE read some theories, or rather hypotheses, of apparitions, in which the authors attempt to account for the appearance of those unsubstantial shadows, resembling the forms of living men, by circumstances connected with the physical laws of matter. But I am rather inclined to hold, with another class of inquirers, that the origin of such marvels must be looked for in the mind of the seers ; although I do not go the length of their scepticism, and deny the actual existence of the ghostly show, as a real and visible spectacle, before the eyes.

All objects of sight are, at best, but the external forms of things painted on the retina of the eye : it is not the things themselves that are seen, or touched, as it were, by the mind ; and who that is familiar with the study of himself, will deny that these objects, *when absent*, are sometimes displayed before him with the same fidelity of likeness, and even the same minuteness of detail ? It is thus that the lover carries abroad with him the portrait of his mistress, without the assistance of the limner, and leaves at home with her a token and remembrance of himself : it is thus, that, when the lamp has been extinguished, we still see the forms of the several objects around us, whether of persons or of things, and grope our way to the door, amidst pictures of substantial realities, and no less substantial pictures of spectral illusions. The mind, therefore, has an art of sorcery, which can bring before our eyes the apparitions of the absent and the dead, or, in other words, renew the faded colours of the portrait, and drop again, before our vision, the scene which is lost in distance or darkness. These apparitions do not, however, come of themselves ; they are brought up by certain circumstances or associations, whether noticed by the individual or not ; and, like living beings, their appearance and actions are modified by those circumstances which have thus ‘disquieted them to bring them up.’ Be it observed, also, that the other senses are in exactly the same situation, and vested with the same powers, as the sight ; and that, for this reason, the appearance of the distant or the dead, the sound of their voices, and the touch of their hands, may act together as a warning, or a reproach, or an encouragement, according as circumstances command. These observations will derive illustration at least, if not entire confirmation, from the following narrative, which is deemed to be authentic in the neighbourhood in which the scene is laid ; and the application of which the judicious reader will, no doubt, be able to make for himself :

About the middle of the last war, the *Polly*, tender, commanded by Lieutenant Watts, came swooping up one evening to the small town of Auchinbreck, in Scotland, and, resolving to pounce, with-

out warning, upon her prey, as soon as she had anchored in the roads, sent ashore the press-gang to pick up as many of the stout boat-builder lads as they could catch. The towns-people, however, were not so unprepared as the Captain of the tender imagined; some of those, indeed, who were fit for sea, ran up into the hills, but by far the greater number collected about the corner of a building-shed as you go on to the main street, and, when the signal of hostility was given, by the capture of a man by the press-gang, they rushed down upon them in a body, every one with his axe on his shoulder, like a troop of Indians with their tomahawks. It had now become so dark that the sailors had much to do to keep their footing upon the loose stones of the beach, which was just at this time rendered a still more troublesome passage by the scattered materials of a pier, then beginning to be built; and, besides, their number was so small compared to that of the towns-people, that, after a few strokes of the cutlas, and as many oaths as would have got a line-of-battle ship into action and out again, they were fain to retreat to their boat, pursued by the boat-builders, young and old, like furies. A midshipman, sitting in the stern, whose name was William Morrison, a fine lad of fifteen, observed the fate of the action with feelings in which local and professional spirit struggled for the mastery. One moment he would rub his hands with glee, and the next unsheath his dagger in anger, as he saw the axe of a fellow-townsmen descend on the half-guarded head of a brother sailor; but, when the combatants came within oar's-length of the boat, and the retreat began to resemble a flight, the *esprit de corps* got the upper hand in the Auchinbreckian mid-shipman's feelings, and, unsheathing his dagger, he jumped nimbly ashore and joined in the fray. At last, the sailors got fairly into their boat without a single man being either missing or killed, although the list of the wounded included the whole party; and the landsmen, apparently pretty much in the same circumstances, although unable, from their number and the darkness, to reckon as instantaneously the amount of the loss or damage, after giving three cheers of triumph, retired in good order.

William Morrison, after discharging his duty so manfully, was permitted to go on shore the same evening, to visit his friends; and, indeed, the Captain could not have known before that he belonged to the place, as he surely would not have confided to the lad so unpopular a task as that of kidnapping his own relations and acquaintances. He was landed at the point of Scarlough, to prevent the necessity of going through the streets, which might have been dangerous in the excited state of the people's minds; and stretching across the fields, and along the side of the hill, he steered steadily on in the direction of his paternal home, which was about a mile and a half from the Point, but only one mile from the town. The moon had now risen, but was only visible in short glimpses through the clouds that were hurrying across the sky; and the tall

strange shadows, of the willows and yews that skirted the church-yard, appearing and disappearing as he passed, probably by recalling the associations of his earlier years, made William shrink, and almost tremble. His own shadow, however, was a more pleasing thing to look at. The dress, which, grown familiar by usage, he would not have noticed elsewhere, was here brilliantly contrasted in his recollection with the more clownish and common garb of his boyhood—for he already reckoned himself a man; and the dagger, projecting smartly from his belted side, gave, in his opinion, a finish quite melodramatic to his air. He drew out the tiny blade from its sheath, and its sparkle in the moonlight seemed to be reflected in his eyes as he gazed on it from hilt to point; but the expression of those eyes was changed as they discovered that its polish in one place was dimmed by blood. This could easily be accounted for by the affray on the beach,—and at any other time and place it would have been thought nothing of;—but at this moment, and on this spot, he was as much startled by the sight, as if his conscience had accused him of a deliberate murder. The impressions his mind had received while passing the church-yard, now returned upon him with added gloom; a kind of misgiving came over him; and a thousand boding thoughts haunted him like spirits, and hangings, as it were, on his heart, dragged it down farther and farther at every step. He bitterly regretted that he had not remained in the boat, as he had at first resolved, a neutral spectator of the strife. How did he know that his hand had not been raised against the life of his own brother? As far as he could see or learn, indeed, no fatal accident had occurred; but there have been instances of people walking cheerily off the field of battle, and dying of their wounds after all. And yet it was not likely—it was hardly possible—that John could have been in the affray, his indentures protecting him from the impress. These cogitations were speedily followed by others of as gloomy a character; for the thoughts breed faster than we can perceive them, and each multiplies after his kind. It was a year since he had heard from his friends, and five years since he had seen them. Who could tell what changes had taken place in that time? Who could tell whether poor John had even lived to be killed by the press-gang? His father, his mother, and his sisters,—were they dead, were they living, were they sick, or in health? His sister had been always a delicate girl, one of those gentle and fragile flowers of mortality that are sure not to live till the summer; perhaps consumption, with the deceitful beauty of his smile, had already led his fair partner down the short dance of life.

Tormenting himself with such speculations, he arrived at his father's house. Here he was surprised, bewildered, almost shocked, to observe a new and handsome farm-house in place of the old one. On looking farther on, however, he did detect the ancient habitation of his family, in its original site; but it seemed, from the distance

where he stood, to be falling into ruins. His whole race must either be dead or banished, and a new tribe of successors settled in their place; or else uncle William must be deceased, and have left his father money enough to build a new house. He walked up to the door, where he stood trembling for some minutes, without courage to put his hand to the latch, and at last went round to the window, and, with a desperate effort, looked in. How his heart bounded! His father was there, still a stout, healthy man of middle life, his hair hardly beginning to be grizzled, by the meddling finger of the old painter Time; and his mother, as handsome as ever, and her face relieved by the smile either of habitual happiness, or of some momentary cause of joyful excitation, from the Madonna cast which had distinguished it in less prosperous days; and his sister, with only enough left of her former delicacy of complexion to chasten the luxuriant freshness of health on the ripe cheeks of nineteen. John, indeed, was not there; but a vacant chair stood by the table ready to receive him, and another—a second chair, beside it, only nearer the fire,—for whom?—for himself? His heart told him that it was. Some one must have brought the tidings of his arrival; the family circle were at this moment waiting to receive him; he could see his old letters lying on the table before them, and recognised the identical red splash he had dropped, as if accidentally, on the corner of one—the dispatch he had written after his first action—although he had taken the trouble to go to the cockpit to procure, for the occasion, this valorous token of danger and glory. But John—it was so late for him to be from home!—and, as a new idea passed across his mind, he turned his eyes upon the old house, which was distant about a hundred yards. It was probable, he thought, nay, more than probable, that his father, when circumstances enabled him to build a new house for himself, had given the old one to his eldest son; and John, doubtless, was established there as the master of the family, and perhaps at this moment was waiting anxiously for a message to require his presence on the joyful occasion of his brother's arrival. He did not calculate very curiously time or ages, for his brother was only his senior by two years; he felt that he was himself a man long ago, and thought that John by this time must be almost an old man.

While these reflections were passing through his mind, he observed a light in the window of the old house; but he could not well tell whether it was merely the reflection of a moonbeam on the glass, or a candle in the interior. He walked forward out of curiosity; but the scene, as he approached the building, was so gloomy, and the air so chill, that he wished to turn back: however, he walked on till he reached the door, and there, sure enough, his brother was waiting on the threshold to receive him. They shook hands in silence, for William's heart was too full to speak, and he followed John into the house; and an ill-cared for house it was.

He stumbled among heaps of rubbish in the dark passage ; and, as he groped along the wall, his hand brought down patches of old lime, and was caught in spiders' webs almost as strong as if the spinner had meant to go a-fowling. When they got into the parlour, he saw that the building was indeed a ruin ; there was not a whole pane of glass in the window, nor a plank of wood in the damp floor ; and the fire-place, without fire, or grate to hold it, looked like the entrance to a burying-vault. John, however, walked quietly in, and sat down on a heap of rubbish by the ingle-side ; and William, following his example, sat down over-against him. His heart now began to quake, and he was afraid, without knowing what he had to fear. He ran over in his mind the transactions of the evening—his walk, his reflections, his anxieties—embracing the whole, as if in one rapid and yet detailed glance of the soul, and then turned his eyes upon his brother both in fear and curiosity. What fearful secret could John have to communicate in a place like this ? Could he not have spoken as well in the open air, where it was so much warmer, and in the blessed light of the moon ? No one was dead, or likely to die, that he cared for ; his dearest and almost only friends were at this moment talking and laughing round their social table, and near a bright fire, expecting his arrival, and John and he were—here ! At length, repressing by a strong effort the undefined and undefinable feelings that were crowding upon him, he broke the silence, which was now beginning to seem strange and embarrassing.

'And how have you been, John ?' said he, in the usual form of friendly inquiries ; 'and how have you got on in the world since we parted ?'

'I have been well,' replied John ; 'and I have got on as well as mortal man could desire.'

'Yet you cannot be happy ; you must have something to say—something I am almost afraid to hear. Out with it, in God's name ! and let us go home.'

'Yes,' said John, 'I have something to say ; but it will not take long to hear, and then we shall both go home. I was apprenticed to the boat-building four years ago.'

'I know it,' replied William ; 'you wrote me about it yourself, John.'

'I was made foreman before my time was out.'

'I know that, too,' said William ; 'Fanny gave me the whole particulars in a letter I received at Smyrna ;—surely that cannot be all.'

'I have more to tell,' said William, solemnly : 'my apprenticeship is out.'

'What, in four years !—you are mad, John ! What do you mean ?'

'The indenture was cancelled this evening.'

'How?' cried William, with a gasp, and beginning to tremble all over, without knowing why.

'I was wounded on the beach,' said John, rising up, and walking backwards towards the window; while the moon, entering into a dense cloud, had scarcely sufficient power to exhibit the outlines of his figure. 'It was by the point of a dagger,' continued he, his voice sounding distant and indistinct, '*and I died of the wound!*'

William was alone in the apartment, and he felt the hair rising upon his head, and cold drops of sweat trickling down his brow. His ghastly and bewildered look was hardly noticed by his parents and sister during the first moments of salutation; and, when it was, the excuse was illness and fatigue. He could neither eat nor drink, (it seemed as if he had lost altogether the faculty of swallowing,) but sat silent and stupified, turning his head ever and anon to the door, till it struck one o'clock. About this time a knocking was heard, and the sister, jumping up, cried it was John come home, and ran to open the door. But it was not John; it was the minister of the parish; and he had scarcely time to break the blow to the parents with the shield of religion, when the dead body of their eldest son was brought into the house.

STANZAS.

THERE is darkness on the mountain,
There is darkness on the deep;
Shadow veils the sparkling fountain,
'Tho' its murmurs do not sleep.

Darkness rests upon the valley,
Like a robe across it thrown;
Whence the gushing brooklets sally,
Is reveal'd but by their tone.

But amidst this depth of sable,
Brooding sullen o'er the ground,
Will not heavenly thought be able
Still to glance its eye around?

Light is still above her beaming,
Though its source be dim and far,
Light is still o'er ether gleaming
From each lone and distant star.

Emblems of the hopes of heaven,
When the hopes of earth are fled,
For one beam ten thousand given,
Myriad glories for a *shade!*

S. E. H

PERSECUTION OF TWO ENGLISH OFFICERS FOR DOUBTING THE
INFALLIBILITY OF THE POPE.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,—To you as the conductor of a work which has already rendered the most essential services to the public, by placing on permanent record, authentic documents and important facts, illustrative of the affairs of British India, I beg to present the accompanying Memorial, lately addressed by me to the Court of Directors of the East India House Company. Though the matter originated in a private difference between individuals, its bearing in relation to public measures and general principles, will, I think, entitle it to a place in your journal.

I know not what attention the plain unvarnished statement of a seaman not accustomed to composition, may meet with from the high authorities to which it is addressed. But from you and from the British public, who are not accustomed to prostrate the understanding before the arbitrary pretensions of either Popes or Potentates, I expect at least to obtain a fair hearing. You will be astonished to learn that two English gentlemen, passengers, on board an English ship, belonging to the Honourable the East India Company, (the *Fausittart*, Captain Dalrymple,) have been persecuted for questioning the infallibility of the Pope! That for this novel crime in the English code, they were prohibited from sitting at the table (for which they paid) with the rest of the passengers, who were supposed to be untainted with this sort of anti-popish heresy! and that this was done by a commander so overflowing with sanctity and zeal for the service of the English Church, that he expelled one of its clergymen from the pulpit, that he might himself take his place and read prayers in his stead!

One who knows so well as yourself the state of the Calcutta press, will expect that the above or any other act of oppression over the body or mind, would there find strenuous defenders. It did so in the journal of a Reverend gentleman, whose works and malicious propensities have long ministered to the worst purposes of power, and who, if he does not belong to the Church of Rome, has at least all the cunning of the Jesuit united with the avarice of the Churchman,—a man who, if he does not believe in the infallibility of the Pope, has been the flatterer and worshipper of every successive ruler of India, so long as they had the loaves and fishes to bestow.

But I shall not waste your time with any further notice of him. I rather proceed to the general reflections which the case suggests, as it is in the nature of things that there should be parasites and sycophants in all ages, so they must be expected to be of more than ordinary growth in a soil so rank as Bengal. I myself know one, who, though a Clergyman, obtained a lay appointment in India, through flattery and subserviency to the views of a party,—who lost no opportunity of inditing the grossest adulation to every man in power,—who quarrelled, desperately quarrelled, with many of the most distinguished members of society, for withholding from him even one occasion of prostituting his talent for flattery,—who, having lauded a Governor and his policy, to the skies while present, maligned and depreciated both when his back was turned, and lauded still more loudly the diametrically opposite policy of his successor. Favours and pensions were showered down on this man, though the public voice execrated him as a public pest, a nuisance, and a firebrand. Honest men who opposed him were ruined, while he continued to flourish like a green bay tree. His gown sheltered him from the chastisement of gentlemen; his sycophancy secured him the support of the local aristocracy; and his jesuitical cunning saved him from the arm of justice and the laws. He was a master of the art of *booing* to his superiors; but he wielded his pen like the stiletto, against all who opposed him. I leave it to the Indian press to say, whether I have overcharged the picture.

I now take my leave of the Pope, the Priest, and the Commander of the *Vansittart*, a holy alliance, whose character and principles are worthy of each other, but whose united malice shall in future pass by me, like the idle wind which I regard not—their tongues are no scandal.

If, to do them fuller justice, it be necessary for me to take the field again, I may, in the *first* place, trace the wily Jesuit with his coat of darkness through all his serpentine and loathsome wanderings, in such a manner as to make him sensible that he at present owes much to my mercy and forbearance—*verbum sat*. In the *second*,—but no—what can I have further to do with the *Ursa Major** of the *Vansittart*?

I am, Sir, your obedient Servant,

THOMAS M'DONNELL.

*Bryanstone-street, Portman-square,
August 28, 1828.*

* The lady passengers of the *Vansittart* named him the *Great Bear*, on account of his very many *amiable* qualities.

MEMORIAL.

To the Court of Directors of the Honourable East India Company.

HONOURABLE SIRS,—I owe it to my own character, and to public justice, to bring to your notice the extraordinary and unwarrantable conduct of two individuals holding appointments under you ; Captain Clarence Dalrymple, Commander of the Honourable Company's ship *Vansittart* ; and the Rev. Dr. James Bryce, Presbyterian Clergyman, on the Bengal Establishment.

In February, 1827, I sailed as a passenger on board the *Vansittart*, Captain Dalrymple, for Bengal. Having been previously many years at sea, during which, not only in vessels sailing to and fro from India, but in his Majesty's navy, I have often stood in the capacity of commander, as well as of one subject to command, I was no stranger to what was due to a gentleman standing in either of those respective relations.

Before I offer a remark on the conduct of Captain Dalrymple to myself, it is necessary to give a general idea of his character as a naval officer, as displayed in his supercilious, vexatiously meddling, and offensive conduct to others. To none was it more marked than towards a gentleman, whose station in life, whose meekness of character, and sacred calling, ought to have sheltered him from the rude assaults of vulgar arrogance and pride. To pass over the innumerable modes of petty irritation and annoyance, which a commander, devoid of feeling, may practise over those subject to his authority, shut up in a ship where arbitrary power may unfortunately be exercised for a long time with impunity, and which, though too minute to be detailed, were sufficient to render this amiable man, his lady, and family MISERABLE during the greater part of the voyage,—I shall only notice one instance of his conduct to the gentleman in question, namely, the Rev. Mr. Mytton, who was going out as a clergyman on the Bengal Establishment.

On Sunday, the 18th of March, 1827, at half-past ten o'clock in the morning, when the passengers, troops, and ship's company had assembled on the quarter-deck for the purpose of hearing divine service, the Rev. Mr. Mytton took his place at the capstern, as usual, to be in readiness to officiate, Captain Dalrymple having previously requested him, as a favour, to do so while on board. When all was prepared, Captain Dalrymple advanced forward from his cabin, walked to the capstern, (the temporary pulpit,) and in the most pointed manner extruded the Reverend Gentleman from his sacred functions, in presence of all the passengers, soldiers, and ship's company assembled.

Another striking instance of Captain Dalrymple's wanton disregard to the feelings of others occurred only a few days afterwards. On the 25th of March, we fell in with a French frigate, bearing the flag of a rear-admiral, which, on our near approach, very politely hove to, when a boat was lowered down from the *Vansittart*, with the view of

transmitting by this favourable opportunity the letters for Europe. In the mean time, the captain ordered his band to strike up 'Rule, Britannia!' This national tune being finished, the master of the band struck up a waltz; but Captain Dalrymple desired him to cease, and play 'Hearts of Oak!' by way, it would appear, of intimating to the French Admiral; and the officers of the frigate, the vast inferiority of their national navy even to the trading vessels of the East India Company. The French Admiral, apparently astonished at finding his civility met with notes expressive of triumph and bravado over his country, appreciated the compliment as it merited, made a slight excuse, and politely declined taking charge of the bag of letters sent in the boat for conveyance to England, by making sail and holding on his course, without deigning to take any further notice of the Captain of the *Vansittart*. Captain Dalrymple's officers can corroborate this fact.

It is almost unnecessary to remark how much such gratuitous displays of insolence were calculated to engender acrimony between the two nations while it is their mutual interest to be in a state of harmony, as well as to lower the author of them in the estimation of every person on board.

As there existed such a propensity to outrage the feelings of others, with comparatively so few objects to exercise it upon, it was to be expected that it would break out in fresh acts of insult or oppression upon his passengers. For where the will to dominate exists, a pretence can always be found, or feigned, for its exercise.

It happened one evening about 9 o'clock, that I was engaged in a general conversation at the cuddy-table with several of my fellow-passengers, among whom was Dr. Woodburn, a gentleman of high respectability, who has long held a medical appointment in your service, on the Bengal Establishment. The subject was the character of the different Popes, as Pius, Ganganeli, Innocent, Leo, &c. &c., the absurdity of their pretensions to infallibility, and generally the odiousness of any such exercise of arbitrary power by any individual, particularly if used in a wanton and oppressive manner. Captain Dalrymple, happening to join the company where this conversation was going on, whether haunted by a troubled conscience, or recollecting his late ostentatious usurpation of the clerical functions—or deeming himself the chief priest as well as the chief magistrate—or seeking a fresh pretence to display his dignity, fancied, or professed to believe, that the remarks on the Pope's arbitrary power reflected on his own exercise of his authority, and sent a message to Dr. Woodburn and myself the morning following, requiring us to say whether such conversation applied to him!

We were at a loss to comprehend the object of so extraordinary a message. It appeared as if, because we presumed to question the infallibility of the Pope, we were now to be subjected to a sort

of inquisition into the thoughts of our hearts. Though the conduct of Captain Dalrymple might justly be considered to bring him within the scope of our observations on the insolent exercise of arbitrary power; yet, so long as we did not say so, which he admits we did not, we considered ourselves to have a right to think as we pleased. We knew of no power but the Inquisition, which interferes with men's thoughts, and to that as Englishmen we could not submit. Though his own conscience might tell him that he deserved such remarks, he could have no right to prohibit every topic of conversation that might have a real or imaginary analogy to his own case, or to take his passengers daily to task on the subject. That Captain Dalrymple may have every possible advantage, I here submit his own statement of the case, (incorrect as it is in many particulars,) being a copy of the minute said to be inserted in the Company's log-book, of which he furnished me with a copy in the following words.

Minute of Captain Dalrymple.

‘Honourable Company’s Ship, *Fansittart*, May 10, 1827.

‘At 9 p. m. I went into the cuddy, and took my usual place at the table. A conversation was immediately commenced* between Captain McDonnell and Mr. Woodburn, which, in the opinion of several present, contained very pointed allusions to me, and, without directly using my name, went on to express that I exercised the authority in my hands in a vindictive, oppressive, and undue manner. Under the belief that my opinion of this conversation might be singular, I said nothing at the time, but immediately after asked some of the gentlemen present, whether their opinions coincided with mine, and finding they did, I requested Major Dun to wait on Captain McDonnell in my name, to state to him, that, it being the general opinion† that the conversation above-named contained a personal attack on me, I called upon him to say whether it was intended or not. He refused to say whether it was intended or not; said neither I, or any other man, had a right to extract his thoughts from him, and refused any other explanation. A similar application was made to Mr. Woodburn in my name, to which a similar refusal of explanation was maintained. Upon mature deliberation,‡ and after having offered to receive an explanation, which was refused by both gentlemen, I determined to exclude them both from the cuddy-table, as the only means left by which I could guard myself from being subjected to attacks of a similar nature.’

* The conversation had commenced fifteen or twenty minutes previously to Captain Dalrymple taking his seat.

† This is untrue, as the purser and others of the many who were present have declared that they could not say that the conversation affected the Captain.

‡ Not more than ten minutes.—T. M'D.

On this statement I must first remark, that it is vague, erroneous, and contradictory.

1. It is admitted, that the conversation was so entirely *general*, that the supposition of its having any allusion to the Captain was a *mere conjecture*.

2. Under the belief that his opinion of this conversation *might be singular*, Captain Dalrymple asked some of the gentlemen present whether they concurred in his notion of it, which *he alleges* they did.

3. It is previously stated, that, in the opinion of several present, it contained very pointed allusions to him.

4. He instantly converts the above 'some' and 'several' into a *totality*, and states that he commissioned Major Dun to inform us, that it was 'the *general* opinion' that the above conversation contained a personal attack,—a message which was, on the face of the minute, untrue.

This message, containing the ground on which we were deprived of our rights as passengers, is disproved by the Captain's own previous statement. He there distinctly admits, that his originally 'singular' notion was not the *general* opinion, but only of *some or several*,—including, perhaps, only one or two parasites of his own, equally vindictive and narrow-minded with himself.

Who these 'some,' or 'several,' might be, I shall not pretend to say; for even this last shred of evidence in the Captain's behalf rests on his own mere assertion. I know of no register, or written document, where I can look for its confirmation; I can, therefore, offer no remark on the impartiality or credibility of the unknown witnesses: but I shall here insert an extract from my journal, being part of a memorandum of a conversation held at the time with Captain Dalrymple's friend, who was deputed to convey the above message to me.

'I asked Major Dun, if he knew on what subject the conversation between Dr. Woodburn and myself hinged? Major Dun replied, "*The Pope! and the arbitrary way in which he exercised his power.*" I asked Major Dun, if he could take his oath that we alluded to Captain Dalrymple? (Captain Jones said, "*I'll be d—d if I could.*") Major Dun replied, "*No, certainly. I could not take my oath. It must be a mere matter of opinion.*" "*Certainly,*" said Captain Jones, "*it can be nothing else.*"'

As this memorandum of the conference with Captain Dalrymple's friends was committed to paper immediately after it took place, and was read over to the parties, and afterwards published in Calcutta, while they were present, with their tacit confirmation and acquiescence, it amounts to a complete refutation of Captain Dalrymple's assertion, that, in the general opinion, or even in the

opinion of 'some' and 'several,' our strictures on the *Pope* were a personal attack on the Captain. It was evidently a mere matter of fancy; and, however striking a similarity there might be between the arrogance of the one and the absurd pretensions to infallibility of the other, we had a perfect right to discuss the conduct of the ecclesiastical rulers, without regard to the applications that might be suggested by the troubled conscience, or lively imagination, of the would-be naval ruler and priest, or his friends. '*Honi soit qui mal y pense*' is the motto of our Sovereign, and the principle of Englishmen.

The Captain of the *Vansittart*, as the Officer of a Protestant Government, could have no right to take the character of the Pope under his protection, or, by identifying himself with him on such Jesuitical, self-contradictory pretences as the above, deprive his passengers of the privileges which they had paid for, and were entitled to by contract, and subject two gentlemen to an exclusion equally unmerited and derogatory to their feelings.

When your Honourable Court reflects, that we were to be subject to this for many months, without any means of escaping from it until the end of the voyage; that it was inflicted on us in the most loose and arbitrary way, without any form of trial or proof being gone into, by the mere fiat of the Captain, as if he had been only depriving a sailor of his grog, and that it was grounded on our refusal to answer a *false* (as above shown) and *impertinent* message, to be interrogated in a manner deemed unjustifiable and uncalled for,—your Honourable Court must see that this proceeding was not founded on the principles of English justice, which will not suffer the accused to be tortured with interrogatories, and holds him innocent till something is proved against him, but rather on the principles of the Holy Office of Spain or Portugal, where the innocent victim of Popish cruelty is forced to confess, or punished for refusing.

In this manner were we punished by the self-constituted Pope of the *Vansittart* and his Inquisition. If so arbitrary, unjust, and unwarrantable an abuse of power were not, now that it is made known, visited with the severest reprobation by your Honourable Court, we might soon expect to hear of some of your Commanders dealing with the lives and liberties of your passengers and crews in a manner similar to the mad Captain (Stewart) of the *Mary Russell*, who has been, a few days since, convicted of putting seven of his passengers and ship's company to death, who had been weak enough to yield submission to his absurd caprices, when intoxicated, like Captain Dalrymple, with the possession of arbitrary power, he became both priest and executioner, and immolated these helpless victims, under the insane fancy that they meant to shake off his authority, and mutiny.

On reaching Calcutta, Dr. Woodburn and myself called Captain

Dalrymple to account for his insult to us as gentlemen. With the former, he had a personal meeting ; at which, after exchanging shots, they were interrupted by the police, and Captain Dalrymple (one ball having already passed very close to his ear) then declined again meeting his opponent to finish the affair in *that way*. In my case he also preferred a safer kind of personal encounter, on the public course of Calcutta, after which he bound me over to keep the peace towards him, to ensure himself against further danger.

Here the matter would have rested, as the transitory life of nautical men does not well admit of the tedious process of legal redress for the adjustment of their differences ; but Captain Dalrymple now found an ally to his tyranny and ungentlemanly conduct in 'The John Bull' newspaper of Calcutta, well known to be the property, and under the control, of the Rev. Dr. Bryce. Although this reverend gentleman knew that I had been bound over to keep the peace, and that laws had been enacted for the press by the Honourable John Adam in 1823, approved and confirmed by the Honourable Court of Directors, the East India Board, and his Majesty's Privy Council, expressly with a view to preserve 'the peace, harmony, and good order of society,' as therein stated, yet Dr. Bryce's 'John Bull' circulated the most virulent personal reflections on my character, evidently intended to make me commit a breach of the peace and a violation of the laws.

The head of the Scottish Kirk in Calcutta might perhaps regard himself as the Presbyterian Pope of Bengal, and suppose that it was thence his duty to espouse the cause of his brother, the self-constituted Pope of the *Vansittart* ; but the only apparent reason for his hostility to me was the circumstance that, when my encounter with Captain Dalrymple happened, I had been accompanied by Mr. James Sutherland, editor of 'The Bengal Hurkaru,' a gentleman whose political principles are diametrically opposed to those of the reverend Divine ; and he therefore thought to wound him through his friend, or probably provoke him to write something in reply, which would furnish the Government with perhaps a reasonable plea for suppressing his paper.

I would not hazard this conjecture, unless it were fully justified by the reverend Divine's conduct, as a manager of the press, during many years past, of which I deem it necessary to adduce a few examples :

1st.—In 1822, the same newspaper with which he is now known to be connected, drew the editor of 'The Calcutta Journal' into a violent personal controversy, which the latter retaliated by a satire on Dr. Bryce's appointment as Clerk of the Stationary Committee, for which confessedly well-merited satire Mr. Buckingham and his family were expelled from India.

2d.—In 1823, Dr. Bryce's Magazine published an attack on Sir Anthony Buller, one of his Majesty's Judges in the Supreme Court there, to which a reply was published in 'The Calcutta Journal,' for which Mr. Arnot was imprisoned in Fort William, apprehended in Chandernagore, transported to Bencoolen, and ultimately removed to England, with the most unmerited sufferings, as acknowledged by the award of your Honourable Court in his favour.

3d.—In August, 1824, Dr. Bryce drew Dr. William Pitt Muston in a similar manner into controversy, and pointed out his opposition to him to the Government, as affording another fit subject for the exercise of its authority,—a recommendation not, in this instance, attended to.

4th.—Soon afterwards, the Deputy Judge Advocate of the Bengal army, having become the editor of 'The Bengal Hurkaru,' was in like manner involved, by Dr. Bryce's Journal, in a series of controversies, which ended in three or four personal encounters; the result of which was, that the Deputy Judge Advocate lost his military appointment, and was completely ruined.

5th.—A succeeding editor of that paper, Theodore Dickens, Esq., a Barrister of the Supreme Court, equally distinguished for his high character and legal talents, was exposed to the same kind of attack, the result of which is thus accurately described in Mr. Dickens's own words, addressed to Dr. Bryce :

'The solemn charge brought against a clergyman of the Scottish Kirk is, that, by your letter of the 17th June, (1825,) you prepared, deliberately prepared, a quarrel between Mr. Micklejohn and me, and, as it were, compelled your own brother-in-law to risk his life in a duel, to the cause of which he was an utter stranger. Nor was this all, Sir: after this, you insulted, basely and scurrilously insulted, and threatened me by the hands, and under the name, of Mr. Micklejohn, and taunted me with cowardice for not having fired at my opponent. You came forward in what must have been a most distressing disguise; the robes of the priest encumbered the limbs of the gladiator, and they were quickly thrown aside: you left your masquerade of meekness, and changed the tone of exhortation for the cry of wrath and revenge.'

I need not trespass farther on the time of your Honourable Court, to develop the character of a man already so notorious as Dr. Bryce. Such was the man who became the ally and advocate of your commander, Captain Dalrymple, in the wanton abuse of arbitrary power; and such is the reverend politician, allowed by the Government of Bengal to insult and trample upon the good feelings of the community. 'To be a stirrer up of strife, is odious in any man; to be an exciter of bloodshed, is criminal; but how much more revolting when that man is a clergyman! a minister of the Gospel of peace! and protected in his outrages on law and decency by the patronage of a Christian Government!

You have sanctioned laws professedly enacted to preserve the harmony of society in India : you cannot, therefore, sanction wanton attempts to provoke a breach of the peace. You have suffered others to be banished for occasional and comparatively trivial infringements of the law : you cannot, therefore, suffer one man only to be a continued, standing exception, and to be thereby encouraged to go on from year to year in its habitual violation.

The seasonable expression of the just indignation which your Honourable Court cannot but feel against such an outrage on law and public decency, can alone abate the nuisance, and remove all ground for the supposition that it is the intention of the Government of India to employ its authority over the press to protect and encourage a band of mercenary literary gladiators, to trample upon the feelings, and establish a despotism over the minds, of its subjects.

This unhappy state of the press prevented justice being done to me in Bengal, as my reverend nautical and clerical opponents would not publish my replies to their attacks ; and my friends dared not defend me, as the penalty might have been deportation, or loss of property, as in former cases : therefore, I have embraced the first spare moment after my arrival in England, to lay the case before your Honourable Court, as the only power which can grant redress.

Your Honourable Court, which must long have regarded the abuses above exposed to view with high displeasure, has now an opportunity of visiting them with just reprehension and condign punishment. Therefore, from a regard to public justice, and to rescue others from similar treatment, as well as to vindicate my own conduct, I have undertaken the ungracious task of bringing this case before you ; and I trust you will be of opinion, that the principles of justice will not be fully satisfied, till Captain Dalrymple is forced to pay over to some charitable establishment the sums of money obtained from his ill-used passengers, under a contract which he has not fulfilled.—I have the honour to be, with the highest respect, Honourable Sirs, Your most obedient humble servant,

THOMAS M'DONNELL.

Brighton, 16th August, 1828.

THE BUTTERFLY RECLAIMED.

A GIDDY, gay, young Butterfly,
 But newly from his shell released,
 Began for the parterre to sigh,
 And long'd to revel in its feast.
 Away on mealy wings he flew,
 And sported in the morning sun,
 Till each its pearl of spangled dew
 The ardent rays had woo'd and won.

And, just as every maiden flower
Was lighten'd of its load—a tear,
Their strangely fascinating power
Eurapt the moth, and brought him near.

But, as he left the fields of air,
And to the fields of flowers descended,
All breathed so sweet, and look'd so fair,
And all in one so brightly blended—

That he, with inexperienced soul,
For all with equal passion burn'd ;
Nor from the bright harmonious whole
To individual beauties turn'd.

Each, as the vain young rover deem'd, ,
Dispens'd for him its sweet perfume ;
For him with varied colours gleam'd,
And smiled the invitation—Come !

Nor loath was he to hear the call,
And aye from bed to bed to skip,
But eager in the cup of all,
Young rake ! to wet his thirsty lip.

Till, stretching once his am'rous flight
Beyond the garden's narrow bound,
A virgin lily caught his sight,
Whose looks were resting on the ground.

Enchanted with her modest mien,
Her simple form and features fair,
Her brow so white, her garb so green,
The vagrant lover settled there.

And ever since, the gaudy hues
Of tulip, hyacinth, and rose,
With all that drink the nightly dews,
And on the lap of earth repose,

Have ceased to charm the gallant moth,
By one alone to love inclin'd ;
The lily holds his plighted troth,
The lily holds his heart—his mind.

And would'st thou know, my gentle maid,
What region this fond pair contains ?
Behold the giddy moth that stray'd ?
The flow'ret that his flight restrains ?

Survey this bower, and look on me,
Then hie thee to yon chrystal lake,
And in its quiet bosom see
The flower that caught the flaunting rake !

QUIVIS.

EXCURSION UP THE RIVER OF MARTABAN. 1

WE have been favoured with a notice of an excursion up the San-leum, or Martaban-river, of which the following is the substance : The river is of considerable interest, not only from its rising very far to the north, in Tibet, or on the Chinese frontier, in that direction where it is known as the Nan-kiang ; but for the richness and importance of the vegetable products along its course, in the province of Martaban.

The party left Martaban on the 10th March, with the flood-tide and a S. W. breeze. The river has the peculiarity of being clear and fresh at a very short distance from the sea. In consequence, its banks, instead of being overrun with plants, usually found within the influence of salt water, are of a different description. The banks at first slope gradually to the water ; but they soon rise considerably above it, and are sufficiently elevated to prevent inundation. Above Martaban, the river side is covered with high grass and Erythras, intermixed with betle palms and occasional clumps of plaitain trees. Behind, at a short distance, runs a range of hills sparingly covered with vegetation. The course of the river, at its mouth, is due north, and it continues in that direction almost to its source, with frequent bends to east and west.

After advancing about fourteen miles, the wind and tide failing, the boats were anchored about 5 p. m. Both sides of the river, at this place, were studded with a number of small conical hills, nearly bare. The western bank was lofty, and consisted of a soft porous sand-stone, with much ferruginous admixture. The thermometer, at 3. p. m., stood at 95°.

The 11th set in with a damp heavy fog, which lasted till eight o'clock. The hills were covered with mist for some time after. These fogs are common at this season, and contribute materially to promote vegetation. They also serve to cool the atmosphere, reducing the temperature, sometimes, twenty degrees. On this day's route the hills became numerous ; and, although villages were not seen, yet columns of smoke, in all directions, indicated their presence. On the left bank lay Trugla, a large village, opposite to the upper end of a long flat island, which divides the river into two unequal branches. The adjacent hills are of lime-stone, of dark hue and rugged outline ; they not unfrequently rise almost perpendicularly to the height of 5 or 6,000 feet, and are covered with shrubs and small trees.

About two miles to the S. W. from the landing-place, opposite to Trugla, is the celebrated cave of Kogun. The path to it leads through groves of cocoa-nuts and palmiras, and palms of a more

stately growth; which, instead of flowering annually, puts forth large panicles only in thirty or forty years, and then dies down to the root. The height, from the base to the top of the inflorescence, is sometimes nearly one hundred and forty feet. The Varnish tree also occurs on the path. It grows sometimes to the height of forty feet, with a stem of eleven feet in girth. The varnish is extracted by tapping the bark with short joints of a small kind of bamboo, cut at one end like a pen. These are thrust obliquely into the bark, and serve, at the same time, to collect the exudation: one hundred, or one hundred and fifty, of such bamboos are sometimes inserted at the same time. Each is about half filled in twenty-four hours, when it is withdrawn.

Close to the cave stand two trees of a new genus, called by Dr. Wallich, *Amherstia Nobilis*. They grow to the height of about forty feet, and bear large pendulous panicles of vermilion blossoms, forming an object, the splendour of which is unrivalled in the Flora of this, or perhaps of any, country. The Burmese call the tree *Thoka*, and the flowers are offered to the images of their saints. The *Jonesia Asoka* grows in considerable numbers in the same spot, and is inferior in beauty only to the preceding.

The hill consists of lime-stone, interspersed with veins of quartz: on being struck with a hammer, it emits a smell not unlike that of ignited gunpowder. The lime-stone is burnt, and yields lime of excellent quality.

The cave is spacious but not deep, and descends gently from the base of the hill. It was literally filled with gilt images of Buddha, in the usual sitting or reclining positions, some of marble and some of clay: some were colossal, others small. The vault, except where stalactites were depending, was studded with the latter, about the size of the palm of the hand, made of clay, indurated by fire, and curiously carved.

On the morning of the 12th, which was free from fog, a visit was paid to Trugla, on the opposite bank. It is a village of considerable extent, lying close to a hill projecting into the river, and covered on the river face with small white temples; similar edifices are observable on the loftier eminences in the distance, to which it might be imagined the foot of man had never ascended. A number of boats were lying off the village, and the loom and forge were busily plied. Cotton and Indigo are cultivated here, and a dye is rudely prepared from the latter. The mango tree grows in the vicinity to a considerable size, and the palas abounds in the jungle. The fields had been lately cleared for rice, by burning; and the ashes of the jungle covered the soil to the depth of some inches, serving, no doubt, as valuable manure. Above three miles from Trugla, amongst the hills, extends a thick forest, with many curious and valuable trees. A Karaanvillage is situated at the entrance into the

forest, amidst cultivation of tobacco, mustard, and cotton, the latter very fine. The plantain and the betle vine also grow luxuriantly.

Beyond Trugla, the banks of the river become more lofty, and the hills, on either hand, more elevated and frequent. A very fine kind of cotton grows in this tract, fully equal, if not superior, to the Barbadoes cotton, reared in India, the produce of which was pronounced at home, superior to any in the London market. Cocoa-nuts and palms are frequent. The river is beautifully clear, and the depth of water not less than from three to five fathoms. In the afternoon, the day's journey terminated at Phanoe.

March 13.—Phanoe consists of a few huts, occupied by Karians. This was the first place on the Salden, at which teak-trees were found. There were a few amongst the huts, and a grove a little way inland. They were, in general, of irregular growth and low stature, the best having been evidently removed some time ago; the average girth of those on the spot, at four feet above the ground, was above nine feet, and the length of the undivided stem nearly twelve and a half. In the same grove, was an *Artocarpus*, which had been stripped of its bark; and, on inquiry, it was found that the Natives use it to masticate with their paun, as a substitute for kuth, or catechu. There is some fine cotton cultivation in this neighbourhood—including the yellow kind. Rice is grown to a small extent. At the time the place was visited, this article was selling at eighty rupees a hundred bags, a rate unusually high, and rather unaccountably so, as the harvest had been abundant. The Natives ascribed it to the great influx of people subsequent to the war; but this appeared scarcely adequate to account for the enhanced price.

Soon after leaving Phanoe, the country becomes very beautiful, and the banks of the rivers very lofty. In one place they rise perpendicularly from the water's edge, at least four hundred feet. In attempting to pass to the east of a large island in the river, the stream became so shallow, that the boats grounded, and were obliged to return, and ascend by the other channel; two canoes were met going down to Martaban; but very few boats had been encountered.

March 14.—The route continued along the western channel, which contained three and four fathoms of water. The banks were lofty, and covered with jungle. On the right bank, several Kioums, or Burman monasteries, were passed. At the upper end of an island lay the village of Koa-Theyn, occupied by Burmese and Taliens, engaged chiefly in the cultivation of cotton and tobacco: a float of several thousand small bamboos was lying off this place on her way from Mayng to Moal Mein. They cost, at the former place, one rupee a hundred, and sell for three rupees at the latter.

March 15.—Two villages were passed on the left bank, the last

called Payprouh. The people here mostly hid themselves on the appearance of the boats. It will be some time before they learn to feel confidence in any thing that wears the semblance of authority, to the abuse of which they have been so long accustomed under their former masters.

The sides of the river, close to the water, are covered with large willow-trees, several specimens of which are to be met with in the Burman territory. It is termed Manooka, by the Natives, and grows to the height of forty feet.

As the boats approached Mayng, a number of teak-trees were seen on the left of the bank. People had been engaged in felling some of the largest and most valuable, and some were lying on the ground. No persons, however, came in sight.

Proceeding to the island of Kaw-lung Geum, the bed of the river became full of pebbles. The island is low, and extends for a considerable distance, running north and south. At the southern extremity was a solitary hut, serving as a chokey. In some places here, the banks of the river were of a porous sandstone; in others, low, shelving, and sandy. On the latter were found many turtles' eggs; alligators are numerous, solely of the snub-nosed kind. The ghurial has never been seen in the Burman rivers, although there were numerous traces of it in the fossil remains collected on the banks of the Irawadi.

The population on this island has received a great accession from the recent emigrations from the Burman side of the river. At the village of Kowlung, on the west side of the island, many boats were loading with cotton, and a large boat, with salt from Moal Mein, was lying at the ghat. Salt sells here for twenty rupees the vis. Abundance of wild poultry was caught in the woods adjacent, by snares of thin cord. Eggs were brought for sale in considerable numbers. The distance of the village from Moal Mein may be estimated at thirty-five miles. The old village of Meayn, on the opposite bank, has been burnt and deserted.

March 16.—A forest of teak was visited on this day, about a mile inland from Meayn. The trees were choked with climbers and underwood, and varied in quality. The Thengan, or canoe-tree, was plentiful: this is the next timber-tree to the teak. The Natives prefer it for boat-building. It is nearly allied to saul, and, like that tree, abounds in rosin, or dammer. A curious kind of bamboo was also met with, the stem of which was elegantly marked, longitudinally, with white stripes. The hills in the vicinity are of the same description as those previously seen—one of which was visited, had several caves at the base, containing sonorous stalactites. The rock is said to yield but a small per centage of pure lime, owing probably to the numerous veins of quartz by which it is traversed.

On crossing over to the other side of the river, along which a thick jungle extended, the recent tracks of elephants and tigers were distinctly perceptible. They do not seem, however, to be very numerous along this river, particularly as compared with the banks of the Attaran and Chappedong, where there is no moving ten paces, without meeting with frequent tracks of these animals. The villagers here entertain no dread of them, and say that the tiger rarely attacks an individual, unless he enters the jungle alone. The elephants are formidable to the cultivation only; and, until they are very much thinned, or driven to a distance, it will be vain to attempt agricultural operations to any extent.

From this place the Yung-salen channel is distant three days' journey, and from thence to the Yenbyean Khari, one day; beyond which it is hardly possible for small canoes, even, to pass, on account of the rapids and rocks by which the course of the stream is interrupted.

Four miles from the Karean village, opposite to Kow Lung island, and spreading to the bank of the river, is the largest forest of teak that occurs thus far upon the Saluen. The bank here is very lofty, and precipitous, and crumbling, in consequence of which the substrata are exposed. The upper soil was of the same kind as previously noticed, and rested on some coarse quartz, sand, and clay, strongly impregnated with iron, as it descended. The forest runs a considerable way inland, and contains a number of valuable trees, although their growth is impeded by underwood and climbing plants. The greatest length of undivided stem was 47 feet, the girth below 9 feet 7 inches, and at the top five. Trees, with a girth of 11 or 12 feet at the usual place of measurement, generally divided at a low height into two main branches.

From this place the party returned to Moal Mein, which was reached on the forenoon of the 18th March.—*Government Gazette.*

MIDNIGHT MUSINGS.

In the dim distance doth the city sleep,
 As I survey it from the mountain's side—
 The mighty monuments of human pride
 Are blended with the mass—a shapeless heap :
 Here doth such slumbrous, heavy darkness brood,
 That Nature veils her visage; and we deem
 In the low blast, and in the lightning's gleam,
 Some strange intelligences dwell !—Such mood
 May sometimes blanch the lone wayfarer's brow
 With an unquiet dread; yet doth he find
 The workings of the strong immortal mind
 Stirring within: Oh! would they tell him how
 Or whence he came—what lies beyond the tomb,
 And open to his eye Futurity's dark womb!

L.

ALTERATIONS IN THE LAWS RELATING TO INDIA.

THE following Abstract of the principal alterations made in the Laws relating to the East Indies, during the Parliamentary Session of 1828, has been drawn up for the information of the Merchants connected with the trade of India, by order of the East India Trade Committee, of whose labours we should be glad to hear a little more, and a little oftener. Most of these alterations are important, but especially that which introduces the Insolvent Laws into India, a measure undoubtedly first urged on public attention by the Indian Press, though subsequently carried into effect by the efforts of Mr. Wynn, and others at home.

ABSTRACT OF THE PRINCIPAL ALTERATIONS MADE IN THE LAWS RELATING TO THE TRADE, ETC. OF THE EAST INDIES.—SESSION, 1828.

9th Geo. IV. Cap. 33. *An Act to declare and settle the Law respecting the liability of the Real Estates of British Subjects, and others, situate within the Jurisdiction of His Majesty's Supreme Courts in India, as Assets in the Hands of Executors and Administrators, to the payment of the Debts of their deceased Owners.*

[The Honourable the Chief Justice at Calcutta having, in a recent case, given an opinion, 'that any British subject might have estates of inheritance in that city, and that such estates would not be legal assets in the hands of an executor or administrator for the payment of Debts,' a considerable degree of alarm was excited, as it had been previously understood and acted upon, that lands, houses, &c. of British subjects, whether of inheritance or not, were available for that purpose, as well in the hands of the owner in his life-time, as of his executor or administrator after his decease.—To set at rest a question affecting the validity of titles to much valuable property, and the future security of creditors, this Act has been passed.]

Sec. 1 & 2. Declares, that, whenever any British Subject or other Person (not being a Mohammedan or Gentoo) shall die seized of or entitled to any Real Estate, situate within the jurisdiction of the King's Courts at Fort William in Bengal, Fort St. George, and Bombay respectively, such Estate shall be deemed assets for the payment of debts, and may be sold or disposed of accordingly.

Sec. 5. Confirms and makes valid in law all conveyances of such real estates heretofore made by executors or administrators.

Sec. 6. Nothing contained in this Act shall be construed as making any alteration in the existing laws in respect to the legal quality or tenure of property.

9th Geo. IV. Cap. 50. An Act for regulating the Appropriation of certain unclaimed Shares of Prize Money acquired by Soldiers or Seamen in the Service of the East India Company.

Sec. 1. Prize-Money (of soldiers) remaining in the hands of agents in India to be paid over to the East India Company at the Settlements where such agents reside, and to be applied to Lord Clive's Fund.

Sec. 2. That belonging to officers or men in the Company's sea Service to be paid over in like manner, for the use of Poplar Hospital.

Sec. 3. States the times when such payments to the Company are to be made.

Sec. 5. Requires accounts of unclaimed shares to be delivered upon oath.

Sec. 12. Not to bar claims to prize-money made within six years after the same may have been paid over to the Company.

9th Geo. IV. Cap. 72. An Act to extend the Provisions of the East India Mutiny-Act to the Bombay Marine.

The Provisions of the Act 4 Geo. IV. Cap. 81, to consolidate and amend the Laws for punishing Mutiny and Desertion in the Company's army, and the Articles of War made in virtue thereof, are, by the present Act, extended to the Bombay Marine, the officers in which service are hereafter to hold commissions, and the seamen to be enlisted.—To take effect from and after the 5th January, 1829.

9th Geo. IV. Cap. 73. An Act to provide for the Relief of Insolvent Debtors in the East Indies, until the First day of March, 1833.

Sec. 1. From and after the 1st of March, 1829, Courts for the Relief of Insolvent Debtors shall be established and held at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay:—Appointment to be in the Supreme Courts of Judicature at those places respectively.

Sec. 5 à 7. Relate to the mode of petitioning the Court.

Sec. 9. Assignments to be made on the presentation of the petition.

Sec. 10. What constitutes an act of insolvency on which a creditor may petition.

Sec. 12. The filing of a petition by an insolvent accounted an act of bankruptcy.

Sec. 15. Creditors whose debts shall be allowed in Court to share with those under the Commission of Bankrupt.

Sec. 17. Signature to certificate of bankrupt:—its force and effect.

Sec. 20. Notices of the filing of petitions to be inserted in the Gazettes of the three Presidencies, and in the London Gazette.

Sec. 22. Where no Commission of Bankruptcy shall issue, the

Assignees of a petitioning insolvent may take possession of real or personal estates within the United Kingdom.

Sec. 24 & 25. Protection from arrest, or discharge of debtors from prison.

Sec. 31. Petitioners must deliver schedules of their property.

Sec. 43. Nothing regarding the adjudication or sale of property shall affect the mortgage or assignment for debts of any share in any ship or vessel, according to the provisions of the Registry Act.—(6 Geo. IV. Cap. 110. § 46.)

Sec. 53. No dividend to be made to joint creditors from separate estate, until separate creditors be paid in full, nor *è converso*.

Sec. 54. Part of an insolvent's property may be reserved for a limited time to place creditors in India and England on an equal footing.

Sec. 55. Court to direct what is to be done with the money of absent creditors.

Sec. 57 & 58. Periods when the Court may, in certain cases, discharge insolvents.

Sec. 80. His Majesty's Supreme Courts of Judicature in India may make rules for facilitating the relief intended to be given by this Act.

9th Geo. IV. Cap. 74. *An Act for improving the Administration of Criminal Justice in the East Indies.*

Many wholesome alterations having lately been made in the Criminal Law of England, it has been deemed expedient to extend the same, by the present Act, to the British Territories under the Government of the East India Company.—To take effect from and after the 1st March, 1829.

9th Geo. IV. Cap. 76. *An Act to amend the Laws relating to the Customs.*

(To commence from and after the 10th August, 1828.)

Sec. 3. Repeals the restrictions as to importation of wine, except in certain quantities, and of segars, in packages of 100 lbs.—(6 Geo. IV. cap. 107. § 52.)

Sect. 10.—*Table of New Duties Inwards, by which the Duty on the following Articles of East India produce has been reduced:*

	New Duties. £ s. d.	Old Duties. £ s. d.
Alkali imported from any place within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, viz.		
— any article containing soda or mineral alkali, whereof mineral alkali is the most valuable part, (such alkali not being otherwise particularly charged with duty)		
— if not containing a greater proportion of mineral alkali than 20 per centum,		
— to the 6th of Jan., 1829, the ton	8 10 0	11 6 8

	New Duties.	Old Duties.
Alkali imported from the 5th of Jan., 1829, to the 6th of Jan., 1830, the ton	6 10 0	11 6 8
— from and after the 5th of January, 1830, the ton	5 0 0	11 6 8
— And an increase in the duty according to its degree of strength, on the same scale as barilla		
Bottles of green or common glass full, — imported from any British possession, the dozen quarts contents	0 1 0	0 4 0
Castor Nuts or Seeds, imported from any British possession, viz		
— Nuts, the cwt.	0 0 6	1 17 4
— Seeds, the cwt.	0 0 6	0 9 4
Castor Oil, imported from any British possession, the pound	0 0 3	0 0 9
Coir Rope, the cwt.	0 5 0	0 10 9
— old, and fit only to be made into mats, the ton	0 5 0	10 15 0
Gum Arabic, imported from any British possession, the cwt.	0 6 0	0 12 0
Opium, the pound	0 4 0	0 9 0
Rice, the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, the cwt.	0 1 0	0 4 0
— in the husk, (or paddy,) the quarter	0 0 1	0 2 0
Rhubarb, the pound	0 2 8	0 4 0
— imported from any British possession, the pound	0 2 6	0 2 6
Sago, imported from any British possession, viz		
— Pearl, the cwt.	1 0 0	1 10 0
— Common, the cwt.	0 1 0	0 5 0
— Powder, the cwt.	1 0 0	1 10 0
Spirits, or Strong Waters, the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, not sweetened nor mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength cannot be exactly ascertained by Sike's hydrometer ;		
— for every gallon of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sike's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof	0 15 0	1 0 0
Tallow, imported from any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, the cwt.	0 1 0	0 3 2
Tortoise Shell, unmanufactured, imported from any British possession, the pound	0 0 6	0 2 0
Turmeric, imported from any British possession, the cwt.	0 2 4	0 10 0
Wax, (Bees',) imported from any British possession, viz.		
— unbleached, the cwt.	0 10 0	2 6 6
— in any degree bleached, the cwt.	1 0 0	6 3 6
Wool, viz.		
— Cotton Wool, or Waste of Cotton, imported from any British possession, the cwt.	0 0 4	6 per Cent

Sec. 11. Continues the duties, imposed by the 7 Geo. IV. Cap. 53, on the importation of silk and silk manufactures, from the 10th October, 1823, when the Act would have expired, to the end of the next Session of Parliament.

Sec. 12. Repeals the duty on cables, (not being iron,) cordage, and sails, (foreign made,) actually in use, on board of any British vessel; and, whenever any such cables, cordage, or sails, shall be otherwise disposed of, the duty to be paid shall be 20 per cent., instead of the present duty of 30 per cent.

Sec. 14. Silk or cotton piece goods may be taken out of warehouse to be dyed, stained, or printed, &c. for exportation, without payment of duty of customs.

Sec. 21. Bounties on refined sugar granted equally, whether it be made from sugars the produce of the West or East Indies.

9th Geo. IV. Cap. 93. An Act to allow Sugar to be delivered out of Warehouse to be refined.

Foreign sugar, or sugar the produce of the East Indies, may be delivered to sugar-refiners at the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, or Glasgow, to be refined for exportation, until the 5th July, 1829, on payment of the following duties, viz. :

Foreign brown or Muscovado or clayed sugar, not being of greater value than the average price of sugar of the British Plantations in America, the cwt. 1*l.* 7*s.*

Foreign brown or Muscovado and further, in respect of every shilling by which such sugar shall be of greater value than such average price, the cwt. 9*d.*

Sec. 6. Officers of the Customs may seize sugar, if they consider it entered under its value, paying the proprietor for the same at a given rate.

Sec. 7. Bond to be given for the exportation of such sugar when refined, specifying the relative quantity of refined sugar to be so exported.

THERMOPYLÆ.

A patriot-band had station there,
And lined, like lions in their lair,
Thy pass, Thermopylæ :
A patriot-band, and who shall dare
Disturb their lethargy ?

Their leader spoke, the Spartan king,
His warriors round him gathering,
The gallant and the free ;
Their leader spoke, and mountains ring
With shouts of ' Liberty.'

He spoke—'This day the quailing hordes
Of Persia's slaves shall view our swords,
Gleaming like meteors' ray ;
And deeds shall herald, 'stead of words,
The glories of this day.

How—when assailed by countless foes,—
How—in the Baltic's desperate close,—
We played our deadly game ;
What time the strife's last sounds arose,
Died hearts that none might tame.

'Our country's bards shall tell each name,
Our minstrel maids shall catch the flame,
Spartans and Amphictyons ;
Throughout the world immortal Fame
Shall sound her darling sons.'

Helmets and arms aside were cast,
They drew around the plain repast,
No blanching cheek was there ;
Then rose and fill'd their cups the last,
And for the fight prepare.

And silent stood those noble brave :
With cup upraised, their leader gave,
'Sparta, thy weal for ever ;'
Such flourishing of swords, such wave
Of banners, saw I never.

And dreadful was the scenery,
Those warriors rushing gallantly
To charge the Persian host ;
And Persia, horror-struck, gave way,
As though the day were lost.

But force on force, Hydarnes* shower'd,
Each force the Grecian blades devour'd,
As enter'd they the Pass ;
Till sunk their day-star—overpower'd
Fell King Leonidas.

No sooner seen, than flash'd like fire
The Grecian's eye—with quenchless ire
Flew blows of instant death ;
'Twas the last scene—mid slaughter dire
The Greeks resign'd their breath.

And, when the Persians gather'd round
To view the place—the 'vantage ground
Greece in the onset gain'd,
(Though dread the contest,) it was found
She, at the close, maintain'd.

G. W.

* Commander of the Persian immortal band.

SKETCH OF THE CHARACTER OF THE LATE MR. SALMON.

(From a Correspondent.)

ON the 6th of June, 1828, at Cromer, in Norfolk, died William Orton Salmon, Esq., of the Bengal Civil Service, and late President of the Board of Revenue for the Central Provinces of British India, aged 49.

Mr. Salmon commenced an early and honourable career in the service of the East India Company. After passing, with credit, through its subordinate grades, he was among the individuals employed in conducting the settlement of the ceded and conquered provinces, in 1802-3.

In the higher and more responsible situation of Collector of Etawah, the vigour and activity of his mind were peculiarly called forth by the events of the period; when the terrific irruption of the Mahrattas, under Holkar, carried devastation through the Dooab, there was a moment when the operations of the British arms were crippled by deficiencies in supplies and money, which, in the ordinary course of the public service, could not be remedied without references to Calcutta, and which references, nevertheless, would have occasioned a delay fatal to those arms. Mr. Salmon took upon himself the sole and unqualified responsibility of forwarding to head-quarters the large supplies, in specie and in grain, so imperiously required at the hands of the collector of the district; and he received, after the battle of Futtehgurh, the public and private expressions of Lord Lake's acknowledgments, that success at that moment might greatly be ascribed to the activity and vigour with which his Lordship's demands for the service of the troops had been met.

The appointment of Collector of Benares was conferred upon him in 1808, entirely upon the conviction of Government of his fitness for the important and difficult situation. Sir George Barlow, under whose administration it took place, had little personal acquaintance with him. This situation was considered one of the most lucrative in India, and one to obtain which much competition had generally existed. The labyrinth of intrigues carried on among the Imperial, Mahratta, and Hindoo Courts, resident at Benares,—the animosities, and perpetually clashing interests, of the rich and powerful among the Hindoos and Musulmans, rendered unyielding integrity of vital importance; while good temper and conciliating manners were no less indispensable to the management of the delicate and important office. He held it, through many a momentous period, in undeviating honour, and with talents acknowledged by the Government he served, and by the Natives of all ranks, by whom he was surrounded, during an interval of eight years.

To the patronage of his revered friend, Lord Hastings, Mr. Salmon owed his last high office in the Service, that of President of the Board of Revenue for the Central Provinces of British India; and this period of his life was marked by his fondest recollections. His devoted attachment to that great and good man was not more grounded on private feelings of gratitude, than upon veneration for his character, and the conviction that India never rose under any former ruler to such a height of happiness and prosperity.

The advantages, public and private, of this situation, so long the object of his honourable ambition, Mr. Salmon was not long permitted to enjoy. A severe and incurable malady had gradually undermined his naturally

fine constitution. In 1824, it was pronounced absolutely necessary to the prolongation of his life that he should quit India for ever; and he retired, at once, into the contracted sphere of an English country life. No cloud of regret for wealth and power resigned,—no discontented retrospections towards the busier scenes of public avocations, cast the slightest shade over the sunshine of his mind: rich in virtue, and in spotless integrity, at peace with God and man, the happiness he diffused around him appeared to have its spring in his own pure bosom. His tastes were entirely English, his hospitality elegant, and untinctured by ostentation. His attachment to the classic literature, imbibed at Westminster, had never been suspended by Eastern habits, or the duties of his public life; his vivid perceptions of the beauties of nature, improved and refined by travel in the most magnificent regions of the globe, still directed him, with partial fondness, to the scenery of his native land; he brought thither a mind strong in the best hopes of a Christian, active in the best energies of benevolence. His charity was of that elevated character, which, considering the relief of human suffering as incomplete and useless, if unaccompanied by the endeavour to amend the heart, directed his attention towards the best interests of the poor, in the amelioration of their morals.

Conscious that the powers of his mind, and his long habits of official life, rendered him capable of continued usefulness, he wished to devote those powers, and that usefulness, to a share in the magisterial functions of his native country. It is believed that he was not unappreciated, although so speedily withdrawn, and that the brief moment it was permitted him to be known there will have beamed bright with the reflection of his honour and his worth.

THE LATE LIEUT.-COLONEL DAVIES.

IN announcing the death of Lieut.-Colonel Davies, of the East India Company's army, it will, no doubt, be satisfactory to his friends and relatives, to be informed how highly his services were appreciated by the late Governor-General of India, the Marquis of Hastings; by the following copy of a despatch, addressed to Henry Russel, Esq., resident at the court of his Highness, the Nizam.

'SIR,—I am directed to acknowledge the receipt of your despatch of the 26th and 27th ultimo, relative to the successful attack made on a body of Trimbeckjee's, adherents in Candiesh, by a party of the Nizam's reformed horse, under the personal command of Captain Davies.

'The Governor-General in Council has remarked, with particular satisfaction, the excellent conduct of the Reformed Horse on this occasion: the gallant manner in which they advanced into action against a superior force would have been creditable to any troops, and affords the strongest proof of the zeal and attention which Captain Davies must have exerted in perfecting the discipline of the corps.

'The spirit which Captain Davies and Captain Pedler, and Lieutenant Rind, and the Native officers, displayed in leading the men into action, affording them the most animating examples, is considered deserving of the highest praise, and his Excellency in Council requests you will communicate these sentiments on his part to Captain Davies, (and through

him to the officers and troops whom he commanded,) in terms that may do justice to the feelings of the Government. The Governor-General in Council is satisfied that the signal success of this first enterprise of the Reformed Horse, will have a very important effect in stamping the character of the corps; and that, on future occasions, when they may be engaged, their conduct will be marked by a greater degree of confidence and energy than might otherwise be looked for in troops so recently organised.

‘What the Governor-General considers most important in this affair, is the decisive proof it affords of the efficiency and utility of the system which it has been the object of Government to introduce into the armies of our allies, with a view to render them substantially serviceable.

‘The Governor-General in Council laments the wounds received by Captains Davies and Pedler in this gallant affair; but his Lordship trusts those officers will speedily be enabled to resume the active duties of their professions.

(Signed)

‘J. ADAM,
Chief Secretary to Government.’

‘Fort William, Calcutta, May 17, 1827.’

The circumstance above alluded to, is one of the many instances in which those distinguished officers have been thanked for their services on the present occasion. They were opposed to a body of 2,000 horse, with only 800 horse, who had been but a few weeks brought under the control of officers; but from the Honourable Company's regular corps, this disparity made it necessary for each individual to act independently of his comrades. The officers, as well as men, were therefore opposed to superior numbers; and in the conflict two of the three British officers were severely wounded. Captain (now Major) Pedler, who is at this moment on furlough, in his Native county, Devon, after having served twenty-six years in India, owes the preservation of his life to one of the not unfrequently vilified Natives; and, as it strongly marks their humanity, and the high sense entertained by them of the British character, it may be worthy of remark. On the Major's rencontre with the enemy, and after their dispersion into small parties and pursuit to a considerable distance, he was surrounded and wounded in his sword-arm, which, together with a wound from the lance, obliged him to give up the pursuit, and on retiring to where the enemy had been first encountered, he fainted from the loss of blood, and fell senseless from his horse. This being observed by one of the enemys, who had been unhorsed in the first shock of the charge, he immediately came to the Major's assistance, tore off the end of his turban, and with it bound up the bleeding wound, carried him under the shade of a neighbouring tree, and restored him to life. His having had the means in his power of escape, is a further proof of the high estimation in which the character of a British officer is held by the Natives of India, as also of their humanity. He shortly afterwards accompanied Captain Pedler to Bombay, whither he was compelled to proceed for the restoration of his health, and was there recognised as a deserter from the squadron of cavalry belonging to that Presidency, and on the circumstance coming to the knowledge of the Commander-in-Chief, Sir M. Nightingale, he was pleased to pardon him, and Major Pedler has since provided handsomely for him in the Nagpore Auxiliary Horse, a corps the Major himself organised, of 2,000 men, belonging to the Nagpore state. Those

troops may be compared to the Cossacks of Europe, in many respects similar, but possessing higher sense of honour and pride. Soldiers by birth, they are trained to the use of arms from their earliest infancy, and though they have a high respect for our Service and Government, are never to be found in the ranks of the regular corps of the Honourable Company. It was therefore considered a political measure of some importance by the late Governor-General of India, the Marquis of Hastings, to bring them under the control of British officers, with a view of not only rendering them useful as auxiliaries, but to prevent them augmenting the ranks of our enemies. Their conduct on every occasion is a proof of the utility of the system, as it is of their attachment to the British officers, and gallantry in the field. By respecting their prejudices, which are but few, and not at all incompatible with that state of discipline to which they are brought, they will always be found substantially useful to the security of our vast empire in the east; they are most patient under fatigue, obedient, sober, and brave, possessing in a very eminent degree all the requisites of a good and valuable soldier, performing all the evolutions practised by cavalry, and adopting a uniform dress of their own costume, better suited than any other to their habits and climate. The lamented assassination of Colonel Davies, was principally, if not wholly, attributable to the intemperate interference of a young and inexperienced officer, a relation of the Colonel, whom he had admitted into the corps,—an interference as unknown as it was unauthorised by Colonel D., than whom a finer or more gallant soldier never entered the army, and who fell beloved and adored as such by the very man who, in a moment of great irritation, perpetrated the act which was as immediately and summarily avenged by their comrades on the spot.

EMPIRES' CHANGES.

VENICE, where art thou, that wast great of yore,
 Throned on thy hundred isles in stately pride—
 Rome—Babylon the Mighty? On the tide
 Of ages have ye pass'd, and are no more :
 The shadow of your glory is but seen,
 To tell what once ye were :—so kingdoms fall,
 E'en as doth man, at Fate's almighty call,
 From the high summit where they once had been
 The wonder of the world—as if some Power,
 Strong and relentless, for a moment's mirth,
 Had raised them to that summit for an hour,
 Then blotted them at once from off the earth :
 So shall it be with this, and those to come—
 Like unto feathers toss'd upon the ocean-foam.

SETTLEMENT OF AMHERST ISLAND.

WHEN this country was first ceded to us, great expectations were held out of the commercial advantages which would be obtained by trading up the numerous rivers which run through this province ; but this visionary prospect has, like all the others, disappeared. These rivers have now been traced as far as they are navigable, and found to be of very limited extent ; and the countries through which they take their course are altogether uninhabited, except by the wild beasts of the forest, or by some equally savage tribes of Aborigines, who are thinly scattered, like the Arabs of the Desert, over the face of this wilderness. To the north and east, an inaccessible chain of mountains, and impassable rapids, prevent the possibility of carrying on commerce either with Siam or the eastern parts of the Burman Empire. To the west, bands of marauding freebooters, under independent chiefs, occupy all the country between the Martaban and Setaung rivers, and prevent the possibility of conveying goods, with safety, into the interior of the Burman Empire in that direction, even if there were a demand for them. To the south lie our own newly-acquired territories, from which, for the reasons already stated, it is in vain to expect any commercial advantages.

There are surely no fairer data for judging both of the agricultural and commercial resources of this province, than by inquiring what have been its exports and imports for the past year.

As to exports, I am not aware there ever were any, except a few boat-loads of beetle-nut for the Rangoon market ; not one vessel, so far as I can ascertain, ever got a single ton of return cargo from this province. As to imports, these have consisted, first, of several ship-loads of rice, to feed people who were too lazy to rear any for themselves ; secondly, of commissariat stores, for the support of two thousand troops, for whom the province could not furnish a single week's provision ; thirdly, of large sums of specie for the payment of these troops, not a piece of which can ever be realised from the province ; fourthly, of various supplies of live stock, wines, and groceries, for such Europeans as can afford to pay for them at an exorbitant rate ; fifthly, of a few bales of coloured cotton handkerchiefs, and piece goods, for holiday dresses for the Burmese ; and, sixthly, of a small quantity of arrack and opium, to improve the morals and intellects of our new subjects. I leave you to judge what revenue these imports are likely to produce ; for my own part, I am convinced that, were it not for the supplies requisite for the troops and European residents here, the whole exports and imports of the province would not form a sufficient cargo for a Portsmouth bum-boat.

But, as great expectations have lately been held out to the public, that such abundant supplies of teak may be obtained from this province as to form a considerable source of revenue, it is necessary that we investigate this branch of the subject, before condemning the province as totally useless.

That there are considerable forests of teak scattered over various parts of this extensive province, is, I have no doubt, extremely probable; but it is obvious, even to the meanest capacity, that, if these forests are at any considerable distance inland, they must, from the impossibility of water conveyance, prove as useless to us as if they were growing on the top of Mount Ararat. Now it unfortunately happens, that the principal teak forests are situated in the lower range of the Siamese hills, several miles distant from any good water conveyance, and upwards of ninety miles, by the Atraan river, from Moel Mein; so that, besides the difficulty of felling and squaring the timber, (a difficulty almost insuperable, considering the scarcity of inhabitants, and their utter aversion to hard labour,) it yet remains to be shown how this teak is to be brought to the water-side, over a country, not only destitute of roads, but of such a nature as to render it extremely doubtful whether any practicable ones could ever be formed.

There is another range of teak forest which has lately been discovered, at the distance of about eighty miles up the Saluen river, above a small village called Myang; but, though the outskirts of this forest approach pretty near the river, yet the principal extent of it is all inland; and the ground in that neighbourhood is even more unfavourable for its conveyance to the river, than that in the vicinity of the Siamese hills; I believe there are also some doubts whether this forest is not beyond our frontier.

But, supposing all those difficulties to vanish, and that the teak could be cut down and floated with ease to the port of Amherst, the next question is, could it be sold there cheaper than at Rangoon? I should decidedly say not. The distance of water conveyance alone down the Atraan or Saluen is greater than the distance teak has to be brought down the river to Rangoon; and, from the scarcity of population, and the consequent high price of labour, it must eventually prove much dearer than that which can be purchased at that port. Besides, though the teak and its conveyance cost Government nothing, it would certainly prove the dearest speculation ever engaged in, if two thousand men had to be maintained in a jungle for the sake of a few logs of timber.

But, as the future prospects of this country must greatly depend on the increase of its population, it is a question which will very naturally be asked, whether there is a probability of any further increase taking place, by emigration from the Burman provinces. Unfortunately, there appears no likelihood of this, now that the civil

discords of the country are settled. As long as the Taliens were in power, they could emigrate at their option, and numbers availed themselves of the opportunity, whose lives would have been forfeited by remaining in their own country; but now that the ports and frontier are in possession of the Burnese, it would be in vain for them to attempt it; indeed I am of opinion, that, whenever a system of taxation is commenced, the population of this place will rapidly decline; for it is only the freedom from taxation, the excessively high price of labour, and of every article of European consumption, which retains them here, as they are thus enabled, from the produce of a few days' labour, to maintain themselves in a state of complete indolence for several weeks, which seems to be the very height of Burman felicity.

When I inform you that the labour of a common coolie is from eight to twelve annas, and of a carpenter about two rupees a day, that the price of a fowl is a rupee, and a couple of ducks five, four small rolls of bread a rupee, a pound of buffalo butter about seven rupees, and a quart of buffalo milk half a rupee, eggs about two annas a piece, and fish, vegetables, and meat about six times as dear as in any of the Presidencies, it is easy to conceive, that, as long as this state of things continues, the Burmese will be in no hurry to leave us; but, as soon as the European residents commence rearing stock of their own, and the demand for labour ceases, we shall very soon see a great portion of the population take their departure; for they do not seem to be at all sensible of the blessings of our just and equitable Government, and appear to regard our intrusion with a very jealous eye. They have, with all their faults, a good deal of the *amor patriæ* about them; and I am convinced, should we ever stand in need of their assistance, we shall find, (as my friend Baillie Nicol Jarvie says of the Highlanders of Scotland,) 'that, however much they may for a time quarrel among themselves, they will always unite against those who carry siller in their pouches, and wear breeks on their hinder ends.'

Some people contend, that, however unprofitable it may be, this province must be retained along with a large military force, as a check upon the rest of Burmah; but I really cannot see that any such necessity exists. If the province bordered upon any part of the interior of Burmah, it might, perhaps, be advisable to retain it, as it would afford us an easy passage into the heart of the country; but the map shows in an instant that all our lately-acquired territory is quite detached from the principal part of the Burman Empire, and, as all the country from the opposite bank of the river, for nearly eighty miles inland, is nearly as desolate and as unfit for the route or subsistence of a military force as it is on this side, I should think it very improbable that any army would ever adopt that line of operations in preference to the channel of the Irrawaddy, where it could always rely on the co-operation of the naval force for supplies. But, even should it ever form part of the plan of a future

campaign, to make a diversion in this quarter, the channel of the Martaban river will at all times be as open to us as it is now ; it is only necessary to send a few gun-boats up the river and effect a landing at any place which may be judged most advisable. We may depend upon meeting with little or no opposition : we shall find the place just as desolate and defenceless as it was upon our first arrival ; for the Burmese will have too much to do with their troops to think of detaching any of them for the defence of a country which they know can be of no value whatever to them.

But, supposing the province were of more importance in a military point of view than it really is, there is one insuperable objection to its ever being retained as a station for troops ; namely, the difficulty of obtaining the proper supplies of good provisions for them : this difficulty seems daily increasing, and has of late been attended with the most serious consequences. Notwithstanding the able exertions of the authorities here to obtain fresh provisions for the European troops, none could be procured for some weeks, during which time they were obliged to subsist on salt provisions alone ; and it is my painful duty to record, that this, added to the extreme high price and scarcity of bread, vegetables, and the other necessities of life in the bazaar, has brought on scurvy, dysentery, and all that train of diseases which inevitably afflict troops subject to such privations.

Within the last three months, the hospitals of the European troops have been, and still continue to be, crowded with sick, and the number of deaths has been considerable. The number of deaths in a regiment between 600 and 700 strong, since its arrival here in December last, has been from 115 to 120 men, in other words, about a sixth part of the whole. This great mortality at first sight certainly does not argue much for the healthiness of the climate ; but I am still inclined to think favourably of it, from the circumstance that all those whose income will admit of their purchasing a sufficiency of wholesome food, are in good health, and bear ample testimony to the salubrity of the climate.

It certainly would be well worth the attention of Government to send a good supply of flour and bakers hither, for the purpose of issuing good wholesome bread to the troops, which is infinitely more nourishing, and must be less expensive, than biscuit. Both bullocks and sheep might also be easily sent round from Calcutta at a trifling expense, and issued to the troops, instead of coarse buffalo or salt meat. This alteration of diet would, I have no doubt, effect an immediate change in the health of the troops ; and, though a few thousand rupees extra might be expended by it, that is certainly an object of very trifling moment when the health, comfort, and lives of British soldiers are at stake. The maxim of one of our greatest Generals should ever be kept in mind : ' That he who, by a judicious liberality in the food and comforts of his soldiers, saves the life of one man in quarters, deserves the praises of his country equally as much as if he had slain thousands of his enemies in the field.'

OFFICIAL RECOGNITION OF THE TERM INDO-BRITONS.

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,

Madras, March 1, 1828.

As a genuine Indo-Briton, I derive very great satisfaction from the interest displayed by you as to the future welfare of the race to which I belong, and I assure you I, with many of my countrymen, feel an eager desire to express to you our sincere thanks and gratitude for the attention frequently bestowed on our case in the pages of 'The Herald.'

The main object, however, of my troubling you with this letter is to bring to the notice of the public a gross fraud that has been recently practised upon us here, and I know of no way in which the object can be so completely gained as by appearing in the pages of your valuable Journal, and I trust you will insert it at an early period.

And that the motives which induce me to do so may not be mistaken, I begin by stating, that I am the son (by a Native woman) of a Scotch serjeant, who fought and bled at Seringapatam and Assaye, and who ultimately fell in battle in Java.

In order fully to expose the upstart mongrel trespassers of whom I complain, I must state that there exists, under the Presidency of Fort St. George, a numerous host of country-born and half-caste men and women, composed of as promiscuous a rabble as ever congregated together, since the days of the burning of the brick and building of a tower on a plain in the land of Shiraz; and they are just as much entitled to the name of Babylonians as to that of Indo-Britons: they are the illegitimate descendants of runaway Spaniards, fugitive Portuguese, French cooks, tulip-stealers from Holland, extirpated Armenians, Italian fiddlers, German Quacks and corn-doctors, and Hanoverian razor-grinders, with many others, whose pedigree it would be as difficult to trace as that of the children of Solomon's servants. This class of beings have, for many years past, wonderfully increased about Madras; rice, their chief food, seems to affect them as a certain highly valuable esculent is said to do the population of Ireland: for they continue fulfilling the sacred command of multiplying and replenishing the earth at an extraordinary rate; and several of them have managed to push themselves forward with an impertinence that can only be equalled by their own audacity and impudence. There are a few of them who have got into Government offices, houses of agency, and other situations as clerks; and it is impossible to describe the haughty arrogance they assume, particularly to Europeans, to whom they are insolent and uncivil beyond any thing I can express; and it is really lamentable

to see a house of agency allow its most respectable constituents to receive such treatment from a half-caste Dutchman their manager, as would in other situations insure Mynheer dismissal and disgrace; in fact, so much do some of them assume, that the very managing partners, in more houses than one, allow these country-born clerks to dictate to them. It is amusing enough to see the arts some of these gentry practise in order to conceal their real character. The garb of religion hides many of their shameful and scandalous actions; Divine Providence is a word that they have always at the end of their tongues, but which, if we may judge from their actions, is but too often very distant from their hearts; and they do manage under this disguise to ingratiate themselves into the good graces of many unsuspecting persons who do not see through their duplicity. They generally set themselves up as advocates for all public charities; hence, we have them as clerks, secretaries, and treasurers to all institutions about Madras where money is to be handled; and there is something in the mere aspect of their so employing themselves that is calculated to prepossess others, and exhibit them in an advantageous light.

During the period the Right Hon. Hugh Elliot was Governor here, a deputation of those mongrels waited upon him, and stated, that it was very unpleasant to their feelings to be called by so ungenteel a name as Country-borns, or Half-castes, and solicited that they might in future be distinguished by some other more appropriate appellation, such as Britons. 'Oh, oh,' said the old Governor, pulling up a certain part of his lower garments, that usually hung slackly on him, 'you want to become Britons, or John Bulls, do you? No, no, I cannot do that: the cast of your countenances, as well as your complexions, tells me you are not descendants of Britons. You more resemble Malays, (a breed between Jews and Pariahs,) or some wandering foreign tribe. I can never let you be called John Bulls; but, by——! I will make you all *Jack Buffalos* if you like.'

Such a reply one would have thought sufficient to have stopped them from ever again agitating the subject; and they showed their sagacity by remaining quiet during the Government of Sir Thomas Munro, for they were aware he knew their characters too well to listen to them. No sooner, however, had our present Governor, the Right Hon. Mr. Lushington, arrived, than they attacked him on the matter, and gained their point. Here it is:

'General Order by Government.'

'No. 236. Fort St. George, Nov. 30, 1827.

'It having been represented to the Governor in Council, that the class of persons designated Country-born, in the General Orders of the 13th of March last, prefer the designation of Indo-Briton, the Governor in Council is pleased to direct, that they shall in future be distinguished by

that term in all public documents in which there may be occasion to mention them. By order of the Right Hon. the Governor in Council.

(Signed)

' D. HILL, *Chief Secretary.*'

This was followed by a letter of thanks to Government, got up amongst this race. I saw it, with the signatures of about a score of such creatures as I have described to you ; but no real descendant of an Englishman, or an Irishman, or a Scotsman, was to be found attached to it ; nevertheless, these '*men of mixed breeds*' now consider themselves entitled to all the privileges of the regular descendants of Britons. This the latter feel as a sore grievance, as they are much degraded by being classed with such people ; and I trust that your publishing this will induce those who have the power, to adopt such steps as will secure to the sons of Britons the privileges of being such.—I am, &c.

NOTE OF THE EDITOR.

IN conformity to our established practice of being open to all parties, and influenced by none, we give insertion to the foregoing letter, which, like all other contributions of correspondents, must be judged on its own merits. We think, however, that all these distinctions, instead of being increased, should be as far as possible removed, as there is quite enough of cause for disagreement in the world, without superadding differences of castes and complexions.

WHAT IS FAME ?

SAY what is Fame ? A melody,
That quickly passes from the ear,
And leaves nought but the secret sigh,
That it would breathe no longer near.

A sun-beam on the gloomy cloud,
That soon its lustre shall o'ershade ;
A flow'ret thrown upon the shroud,
That wraps the palled and the dead.

An alms with cold reluctant eye
Presented to the craving soul,
So cold that it would rather die,
Than deign to take the niggard dole.

This is the praise, the fame, that earth
Doth to its wretched vot'ries give !
Oh ! grant me that of heavenly worth,
Let me the Eternal's praise receive !

S. E. H.

**MEMORIAL OF THE MERCHANTS OF LONDON AGAINST THE STAMP
ACT IN INDIA.**

FROM a desire to preserve in our pages a faithful record of the principal documents relating to this important subject, we republish from the Parliamentary Papers of the last Session, the following memorial ordered by the House of Commons to be printed on the 28th of June last. There is one paragraph that calls for particular animadversion, which we reserve for a note upon the paragraph itself. The Memorial is as follows :

Copy of the Memorial presented by the merchants in London trading to India, in February last, to the Honourable Court of Directors of the East India Company, respecting the Stamp Tax lately imposed in Calcutta (by Regulation No. II. of 1826) on Commercial Transactions.

To the Honourable the Court of Directors of the United East India Company.

HONOURABLE SIRS,—In conformity to the desire expressed by your honourable Chairman and Deputy Chairman, at an interview with which a Deputation of Merchants trading to the East Indies was honoured on the 22d ultimo, we proceed to submit for the consideration of your Honourable Court the following observations on the Regulation No. XII., of the Bengal Government, dated the 14th of December, 1826, for raising and levying Stamp Duties within the town of Calcutta :

Having at the interview stated the motives by which, acting in behalf of our correspondents at Calcutta, we were influenced in soliciting it, we have to assure your Honourable Court that it will afford us unspeakable gratification, if, by the proceeding we now adopt, we should fortunately succeed in producing upon your Honourable Court such an impression of the reasonableness of the considerations we have to urge as may avert the necessity of any more public agitation of matters which it were so extremely desirable, on many accounts, should not be exposed to the hazard of popular or party controversy. We can say with sincerity, that, in making the appeal which we now do, we have nothing so much at heart as the true interests of the Honourable Company, and of that vast empire the government of which is in their hands. There is, in truth, no sentiment which we have to express which is not inspired by an anxiety for the preservation of the tranquillity and welfare of India, and the maintenance of the good understanding that has hitherto subsisted between the Honourable Company and the inhabitants of that country.

In deprecating the enforcement of the late Stamp Regulation,

and entreating your Honourable Court to reconsider the policy of that measure, we are actuated, not more by a sense of what we owe to our constituents, than by a conviction that the concession which it is our object to obtain will, if granted, contribute essentially both to the productiveness of those sources from which the Honourable Company derive their revenue, and to the moral strength and best security of their dominions.

It is not our intention, on the present occasion, to enter at length into the question of the legality of these new imposts. Your Honourable Court are, however, aware that very opposite opinions are entertained, and have been expressed, as to this point by gentlemen of eminence at the bar ; and that the inhabitants of Calcutta have in their petition to Parliament, the only mode of appeal left open to them, as well as in the antecedent Memorial presented by them to your Bengal Government, asserted in very decided terms their sense of the repugnance of the recent Regulation to the spirit of those sections of the Acts 53d and 54th Geo. III., by which it has been supposed to be authorised.

Upon no principle of fair interpretation can these sections, they contend, be understood to confer upon the Honourable Company any other right of taxation, in reference to the inhabitants of Calcutta, than that of levying certain duties therein particularly specified. This very specification of certain duties seems, indeed, to prove that the Legislature could not have intended by the clauses in question to communicate that right of indefinite taxation which is claimed by the Honourable Company, and upon the existence of which the legality of the obnoxious Regulation of the Bengal Government depends. Whence, it may be asked, the necessity, or where the purpose of particularising, for example, the rate of customs to which property was, in future, to be subjected, if a power was at the same time conferred of imposing burthens upon the subject *ad arbitrium* of every species and to any amount ?

Our constituents feel themselves still further confirmed in these views of the true import of the Statutes which have been thus appealed to, by the line of conduct pursued by the Honourable Company, up to the adoption of the measure now so generally complained of. For fourteen years, or about two-thirds of the period over which the Act extends, this right of unlimited taxation claimed by the Bengal Government has been allowed to lie dormant, and apparently unthought of. Our constituents cannot help considering this seeming unconsciousness of its very existence for so long a space of time, as rendering the notion of its ever having been really conveyed by the Legislature at least exceedingly improbable. For ourselves, we have only to add, in reference to this point of the argument, that we apprehend it will be somewhat difficult, should the question ever be subjected to Parliamentary discussion, to persuade the public mind in this country to acquiesce in the very extraordinary

claim now for the first time advanced by the Honourable Company ; for the delegation of a power of unlimited taxation appears to us to be opposed to, and incompatible with, the functions of legislation itself.

Without insisting further upon the abstract question of the law of the case,—to which, indeed, we have been induced to call the attention of your Honourable Court, chiefly with a view of submitting what we conceive will be the prevailing feeling upon the subject, should it be publicly agitated,—we proceed to examine the late Regulation, in reference to those grounds of equity and general propriety upon which its advocates appear most anxious to defend it. It is unnecessary to remark, that, in going into this line of argument, we do not mean to abandon the position we had already taken ; but, were even the legality of the measure unquestionable, we should still protest against it on the score of inexpediency and unfairness.

The reasoning in favour of the Regulation, contained in the reply of the Bengal Government, may be divided into two parts. The portion which we shall first notice is that in which it appears to be contended, that the forms observed in framing the enactment have been such as to afford a sufficient security to those affected by it, that no right or interest of theirs, entitled to attention, can have been overlooked in its construction. ‘The Regulation,’ it is affirmed, ‘which the petitioners represent as, in their opinion, illegal, has been submitted for the sanction of the Court of Directors, and for the approbation of his Majesty’s Government, as represented by the Board of Commissioners in England ; and by them it has been passed, with the aid of the professional talent, general intelligence, and acute discrimination, which the state of society in England places at their command.’

Now, admitting, in the fullest extent, both the enlightened wisdom of the tribunals here mentioned, and their disposition to give all manner of favourable consideration to the fair claims of the parties who are to be affected by their decisions, we cannot perceive, even in *their* superintendence and control, that complete safeguard of the popular interests which was desirable in such a case as the present. They are not, in fact, open to those influences necessary to enable them to act in that capacity with the requisite vigilance and efficiency. The entire privacy with which their proceedings are conducted, affords, it ought to be remembered, no opportunity to parties even to call their attention to the circumstances of a case, before their determination in regard to it has been taken, and their decision pronounced. In the present instance, the first intimation received by the inhabitants of Calcutta of the new burthens and vexatious Regulations to which they were about to be subjected, was the publication of the enactment by which they were already imposed. That enactment had obtained, undoubtedly, the sanction both of your Honourable Court and of the Board of Commissioners,

and had passed, it may be, the ordeal of a long and anxious examination, on the part of each tribunal. But, whether it was canvassed thus carefully and deliberately, or was received and re-transmitted to its original framers without having been subjected to any such elaborate consideration, it was certainly, at all events, permitted to attain its final shape before the public in India had had any means of learning that the measure was so much as contemplated. In these circumstances, it is obvious enough that its authors were altogether precluded from deriving any assistance in its construction, either from that local knowledge which could have been nowhere found in so much abundance as among the inhabitants of Calcutta, or from those indications of the general feeling in that settlement, with regard to the proposed measure, which a previous announcement of it would have elicited.

The principal ground, however, upon which the Bengal Government rest their defence of the new Regulation, is the alleged unfairness of exempting the inhabitants of Calcutta from a participation in the fiscal burthens borne by the provinces. 'In the eyes,' we are told, 'of the Legislature in England, the inhabitants of the interior have equal claims to consideration with those of Calcutta; and it never could have been intended that the whole burthen of supporting Government should be borne by the former, while the latter should live as a privileged class, protected from hostile aggression and internal commotion by establishments to the support of which they contributed little or nothing.'

The first remark that we have to make to this representation, has no reference to the accuracy of the assumptions or insinuations of which it consists. We do not feel ourselves bound to admit that the Honourable Company possess any right of unlimited taxation, even in regard to the inhabitants of the provinces; and, upon the same grounds on which we have already expressed our serious doubts as to the legality of the Calcutta Stamp Act of 1826, we have reason to question that of the Provincial Stamp Act of 1824. Whatever force, therefore, may belong to the reasons adduced for abolishing, as far as possible, all distinctions between the condition of the citizens of Calcutta and that of the inhabitants of the interior, much remains to be proved before it can be granted that such considerations have any bearing upon the points under discussion.

But we are, we confess, not a little surprised at the language employed in the passage just quoted, in regard to the actual circumstances of the two communities which it brings into comparison, and their claims upon the Honourable Company. The town of Calcutta, we beg leave to remark, was an English settlement before the incorporation of the Honourable Company, and has at all times been recognised as possessed of various privileges and immunities, essentially distinguishing it from those districts which have been added by conquest to the dominions of the Honourable Company in

comparatively recent times. Not only did it receive a royal charter from Charles II., but English courts of civil and criminal jurisdiction were established within its bounds, by Act of Parliament, in the reign of George I., the powers of which subsequent interferences of the Legislature have considerably enlarged, and which continue to the present time to mark out the territory over which the authority of those courts extends, as enjoying a pre-eminence over the surrounding country. Even the Natives themselves have been accustomed to look upon this settlement as exempted from those exactions to which the conquered provinces, at least up to the last renewal of the Honourable Company's charter, were generally held to be exposed; and, from a very remote period, this impression has attracted to it many of the most wealthy of the Native establishments, whose residence has contributed essentially to the growth of its commercial prosperity, and who can only be induced to withdraw from it the benefit of their capital and industry, by having their confidence shaken in those protecting institutions by which they have till now believed it to be distinguished.

The British-born inhabitants of Calcutta, too, who form an important and influential class of the population, seem to possess a strong claim, from the many disabilities and vexatious restraints to which they are in many respects subjected by the policy of the Honourable Company, to all the indulgence, by way of compensation, which it may be found practicable to afford them. Liable as they are at any time to be forcibly removed from the country at the pleasure of the Government, and deprived, at the same time, of several of the most valued privileges enjoyed by their fellow-countrymen of all classes at home,—being neither, for example, permitted to discuss the measures of their rulers in public meetings nor through the medium of the press,—*they might well seem entitled, on these accounts alone, to a somewhat more indulgent treatment, in other respects, than the Native population, who either do not labour under the same disabilities, or are prevented, by their long-formed habits, from feeling the severities of the law in the same degree!* But when, to all these restrictions, we add the mention of that crowning disqualification which renders an Englishman incapable of either possessing or farming the smallest portion of the soil in India, and thus marks out the whole British-born inhabitants as strangers and aliens in the land, *we have surely established a sufficient distinction between their condition and that of the Natives, to entitle us to refuse our assent to any comparison between the two communities, which would assert either their equivalent privileges or their equivalent claims!**

* The parts we have marked in italics contain sentiments that we should hardly expect to have seen stated in India by the most inveterate exclusionists; but still less in this country, and that, too, by men professing themselves, as many of the signers of this Memorial do, to be the warm friends of the Natives of India, and the advocates of an *extension* of their

The civil condition of the English part of the community in Calcutta is, in fact, and always has been, as distinct from that of the population of the interior as is their origin itself: Of the two classes, the one has become subject to the government of the Honourable Company under the provisions of Acts of the British Legislature, the other has been subdued by force of arms; and, in reference to it, the Company may be said, in some measure, to enjoy the rights of conquest. The one has at all times been recognised as in many important respects under the protection of British law; the other has uniformly looked for all legal rights and privileges to the will of the Company alone.

Our constituents, however, contend that, whatever may be thought of the doctrine of the Bengal Government, that there ought to be no distinction between the ancient settlement of the conquerors and the new provinces inhabited by the conquered, nothing can be more unfair than the statement which would represent them as having actually hitherto contributed little or nothing to the expenses of the State. Those of them who are not Natives of the country certainly do not pay any thing to the Honourable Company in the shape of rent for land, not being permitted to farm land. The contributions derived from this source, however, although forming so large a portion of the revenue of the Indian Government, do not constitute an impost bearing peculiarly upon the cultivators of the soil, but one which is equally operative, in fact, upon all the consumers of its

rights. The condition of the English in India, is, God knows, humiliating enough; but that of the Natives is ten times worse: for, excepting the mere exemption from liability to removal from the country, they suffer all the disadvantages of being subject to irresponsible power, and unlimited taxation, in a much greater degree than the English. But, even were it otherwise, the Merchants of England ought to be ashamed to recite the degrading prohibitions under which their countrymen reside in India, as an argument for their exemption from a Stamp Tax, without at the same time condemning these prohibitions as disgraceful to the Government that imposes, and the people that submit to them, and without first asking Parliament to remove from their fellow-countrymen in the East, such marks of slavery and oppression. Let them petition for the abolition of the power of arbitrary banishment,—let them ask for the right of their countrymen in India to discuss the measures of Government through the press,—and for the right of their holding and cultivating land. Let them, in short, denounce the whole system by which Englishmen alone are considered and treated as aliens in a country which they ought to consider as their own; and they would then command the support and sympathy of all good men, whether in India or here. But, while they sit down content under these badges of slavery, and merely use them as arguments why *they* should enjoy privileges of exemption from a tax to which all the Natives of the country are subject, without the power of raising a voice of reason or remonstrance against the conduct of their rulers, we think they exhibit a spectacle of selfishness and illiberality quite unworthy the English name and character.—EDITOR.

produce. Unless, however, it is meant to be contended that the rent levied upon land is a tax falling only upon the farmer, we confess we do not understand upon what grounds it is maintained by the Bengal Government, that the whole expenses of the State are borne in India by the inhabitants of the interior, while those of Calcutta live as a privileged class, and contribute little or nothing to the support of those establishments by which they are protected. The Stamp Duties imposed in 1824 form, we believe, the only species of tax which, previous to the late Regulation, was exclusively operative in the provinces. The produce, we understand, of these duties has never been considerable, and their pressure may be fairly affirmed to have been at least compensated by that of other imposts, bearing peculiarly upon the commerce and inhabitants of Calcutta ; such, for example, as the house-tax, which the Government, after more than one trial, has failed in levying in the provinces ; heavy rates of customs, tolls on markets and canals, port charges, &c. As consumers, they pay in the shape of indirect taxation exactly the same rates with the inhabitants of the provinces. But this is not all. Those acquainted with the state of India know well that a great portion of the capital employed even in the cultivation of the soil in that country is furnished, in fact, by those who are not themselves permitted to make investments either in the purchase or farming of land. In the cultivation of indigo alone, it has been asserted, by those most competent to ascertain the fact, that capital advanced by individuals in Calcutta is now employed to the amount of nearly two millions sterling annually. Even the Stamp Duties, therefore, to which the agricultural part of the population are subjected, become in this way a burthen upon the monied interest in Calcutta, the inhabitants of which city are thus in reality taxed through the taxation of the provinces.

Such are the general principles on which it appears to us impolitic and inexpedient to impose, at the present moment, any additional tax on the inhabitants of Calcutta, whether under the plea of assimilating their burthens to those borne by the inhabitants of the provinces, or upon any other ground. We hold that the Honourable Company do not possess any right of arbitrary taxation ; and, even if they did possess any such right, we maintain that they would not act with a fair and judicious consideration either of their own interests or of the circumstances of the other parties concerned, in exercising it in the manner proposed.

Our objection, however, to the recent Regulation of your Bengal Government becomes much stronger when we proceed to consider the nature of the particular tax imposed by it, and the character and habits of the population who are to be affected by its provisions. A Stamp Tax, extensively affecting money transactions, is perhaps the very last species of impost to which, under a wise system of finance, it would be attempted to subject such a community as that

of the inhabitants of Calcutta. From the manner, in the first place, in which accounts are kept, and business in general carried on among the commercial classes in that city, it appears to be exceedingly doubtful if the application of the provisions of the new Regulation be even practicable. The incessant and harassing inconvenience likely to result from it, may be fairly compared to that which would be experienced by all classes of men in this metropolis, were the Government to attempt to raise a revenue by calling into operation a system of Stamp Duties upon the dealings of bankers. From the very nature of the climate, it ought to be remembered, that at Calcutta almost all payments are necessarily managed by writing, the consequence of which will be, should the exaction of these Stamp Duties be persevered in, that they must produce a far greater amount of annoyance than any similar tax could occasion in this country, where, in many departments of business at least, persons are so much in the habit of making and receiving payments without the intervention of written orders or acknowledgments. In India, the commercial man must, under the new law, be reminded by almost every sum of money he has to receive or to pay away, of the burthensome exactions of the Government, and its vexatious interference with the most delicate concerns of private life. For in this light of an intolerable intrusion into men's private affairs is the Act undoubtedly viewed by the whole Native population, who, naturally cautious and averse to publicity in their money transactions, contemplate with more than suspicion whatever seems to threaten an exposure of matters, the concealment of which from general observation they may regard as of much importance.

The experience of Government too, if we are rightly informed, has already discovered another formidable inconvenience attendant upon the tax, in the enormous expense of collecting it; an expense which, we are assured, has been found to amount to a charge of more than forty per cent. upon the whole returns.

The strongest, however, of all the grounds on which we would urge your Honourable Court to interpose its authority, to avert the consequences of this Regulation of your Bengal Government, is the universal and unprecedented alarm and disquietude which it has occasioned in Calcutta. In urging upon your attention such a consideration as this, we are not calling upon your Honourable Court to make any concession to mere popular clamour. The dissatisfaction now existing among the inhabitants of Calcutta is not the feverish excitement of factious individuals, but the serious alarm of a well-ordered community, not ignorant of their rights, or unmindful of their fair claims on the Honourable Company's Government.

Among the Native merchants in particular, so little accustomed, on ordinary occasions, to feel any interest in public measures, these new exactions have, both from the peculiarly vexatious nature of

their interference with the transactions of business, and the unambiguous and overwhelming import of the language by which their legality has been defended, spread a ferment of discontent and apprehension which nothing but their immediate and complete revocation will in all probability be able to allay. Several of the wealthiest of this class of the inhabitants, it is said, have already seriously contemplated withdrawing themselves from the settlement, and only defer carrying their resolution into effect until they shall have learned the result of the appeal about to be made, in the event of the failure of all their other efforts to obtain redress, to the Legislature in England.

We trust your Honourable Court will pardon any prolixity into which we may have been led by our anxiety to submit to you whatever facts or reasonings appeared to us to be of weight in reference to a subject, your decision upon which is looked for, at the present moment, with much earnest expectation, by a large proportion of those who take any interest in the future welfare of India; convinced that you will at least do us the justice of believing, that, in discharging our duty to our constituents, we have never forgotten those sentiments of respect and consideration which we owe to your Honourable Court.—We have the honour to subscribe ourselves, Honourable Sirs, your most obedient and humble servants,

(Signed)

Bazett, Colvin, Crawford, & Co.
Cockerell, Traill, & Co.
Fletcher, Alexander, & Co.
Fairlie, Bonham, & Co.
Palmer, Mackillop, & Co.
Ingis, Forbes, & Co.
Rickards, Mackintosh, & Co.

Finlay, Hodgson, & Co.
M'Lachlan, Macintyre, & Co.
Z. Macaulay and Babington,
Small, Colquhoun, & Co.
R. Scott, Fairlie, & Co.
Gregson, Melville, & Knight,
Hunter & Co.

London, 18th February, 1828.

NOTE.—The foregoing Representation was addressed to the Court, in consequence of an interview held at the India House, between the Chairman and Deputy-Chairman of the Court of Directors, and a Deputation of Merchants, at the request of the latter gentlemen. No reply has been given by the Court to such representation, as the Regulation to which it has reference has been appealed against to the King in Council, of which the Deputation was informed at the time.*

REDUCTION OF PAY IN THE ORDNANCE DEPARTMENT OF INDIA

SIR,—The extensive circulation of your valuable Journal in different parts of India, and the kindness with which you meet the wishes of your readers, by inserting papers tending to the amelioration of those connected with the Indian army, lead me to hope, that you will have the kindness to insert the following strictures at your earliest convenience.

By a General Order, dated 25th May, 1827, our Governor, Sir Thomas Monro, deemed it expedient to make an alteration in the pay and allowance of Deputy Commissaries, whose pay formerly amounted to 250 rupees, Assistant Commissaries 200 rupees, Deputy Assistant Commissaries 120 rupees, Conductors 48 rupees, and Troop Quarter Masters 72 rupees three Annas, to 40 rupees a month, placing that sum which was formerly allowed under the head of pay to that of allowances.

Does it not appear, Sir, a singular hardship to men who have fought and bled in the Company's service, who have always been considered as most essential to the efficiency of the army, after having attained the highest grade in the Ordnance Department; (viz., Deputy-Commissary with a salary of nearly 400 rupees a month;) that in old age, and, perhaps, with a large family, they should retire from the Service on 40 rupees a month?

Could it ever be contemplated or imagined, that the Court of Directors would reward their servants in this manner? It is an indisputable fact, that most of the parties who are now in the Ordnance Department, have been many years employed in various branches of the Service, and, as a reward for good conduct, have been placed in that Department, beginning from Conductor, and eventually attaining the rank of Deputy-Commissary. It is well known by the Indian Government, that Conductors have a higher responsibility attached to them than any subaltern officer (not holding a staff situation) in the Company's Service. Witness the immense quantity of military stores occasionally placed under their charge when proceeding on command from Fort St. George to any of the out stations; viz., Nagpore, Secunderabad, Musalipitam, &c. If it be allowed that an Indian Governor shall make what innovations he pleases on the pay and allowances of those connected with the army as well as upon what they shall retire, what reliance can the veteran have on the faith of Government?

Let me candidly ask, if Sir Thomas Monro had made such an alteration in the sums which are granted to civil and military servants on their retiring from the Service, should we have heard of his many virtues blazoned forth at the public meetings, and the

fulsome panegyrics so often inserted in the public papers at Madras? Would those men who have been so zealous to raise a monument to perpetuate his name, have subscribed the sum of 50,000 or 60,000 rupees among themselves?

With what satisfaction, I would ask the Court of Directors, (for we can ask no one this question in India for want of a free press,) can a man look forward to end his days with an enfeebled and broken constitution, and worn out with a series of hardships? But, Sir, such is our state in India, that we dare not complain; and it may be, that, through the medium of an English Journal, the Court of Directors will listen to the truth, and pity those men who have no opportunity of helping themselves. Should a Commissary's wife survive her husband with a numerous offspring, she will have the consolation of receiving the sum of 10 rupees a month, being one-fourth of the pay allowed by Sir Thomas Monro, instead of the former sum: viz., 62 rupees.

Several parties who have served the established period, and would retire to England immediately, cannot, because their only dependance is on 40 rupees a month.

F. J.

THE GRAVE OF BEAUTY.

THE skies of evening are beaming o'er me,
 The birds are singing amidst the bowers,
 The world is basking in smiles before me,
 With whispering leaves and with breathing flowers.
 But she with whom, in the days departed,
 'Mid scenes so bright, it was bliss to stray—
 The young, the fond, and the faithful-hearted,
 Like all that's fairest, hath fled away.
 With bough and blossom her bed embowering,
 I see the trees o'er her slumbers wave—
 And hear the small birds around me pouring
 The song of gladness above her grave—
 And reckless childhood, delighted, cheering
 With sounds of mirth all the village green;
 And Nature her gaudy, gay robes wearing,
 As death's dark partings had never been.
 But, while her garlands are greenly wreathing,
 I think of flowers she can never bring—
 And, while sweet music is round me breathing,
 Of one that hears not the voice of spring.
 And, while the sun, o'er the sleep forsaken,
 Sheds farewell smiles from the distant main—
 Sad recollections the scenes awaken,
 Of her for whom he shall rise in vain.

STATE OF THE MEDICAL PROFESSION IN INDIA.

' *Obsequium amicos, veritas odium parit.*'

To the Editor of the Oriental Herald.

SIR,—The description of the state of the Medical Profession in India by a retired Surgeon, in your number for April last, is, upon the whole, correct. There are, however, in his letter, some inaccuracies, evidently proceeding from misinformation, which a later acquaintance with the service enables me to correct, while I offer some additional information on the subject of medical abuses and reform.

Medical contracts for European regiments have at length been abolished at Madras, to which Presidency the 'Retired Surgeon's' observations seem chiefly to refer, as they have been for some time at the other Presidencies: but an allowance of 18 annas, about 2s. 3d. per man per month, is still granted to the Surgeons of European corps, on account of certain supplies which they have still to furnish: a circumstance which your correspondent does not mention. The members of the Medical Board at Madras certainly did recommend to Government the abolition of medical contracts on account of Europeans, from which they were no longer to profit themselves.

The medical contracts for the Native troops, contrary to your correspondent's statement, are still continued. When I left the country, their abolition was spoken of; but this was doubtful, as their transfer to the Commissariat would occasion a great additional expense to the Company.

I perfectly agree with your correspondent that the medical branch of the Service in India is now at the lowest possible ebb; and, what is more to be lamented, there is no chance of its amelioration from home. Surgeons of twenty years' service and upwards in that destructive climate, equal to thirty years' expenditure of life in Europe, are now retiring in great numbers, having nothing, beyond the miserable pittance assigned them, to expect in India, within the ordinary period of human existence; and many medical men in India, grown grey in the Service, and in what were formerly profitable, as well as highly responsible and laborious charges, have lately applied to be relieved, or to be permitted to go home on furlough, having now no inducements to remain on account of the emoluments of office. Their resignations were not accepted. Medical assistants were liberally tendered to them; and furloughs were refused to them on every ground, excepting that of certified sickness. Several surgeons, of from thirteen to fifteen years' service, whose health is broken, will be obliged to retire on half-pay.

In Bombay the salaries of members of the Medical Board, and of superintending Surgeons, have been much reduced; and, as retrenchment is the order of the day, and the only instruction of our Governors of Leadenhall-street, the same thing is expected on the other Presidencies. Men in office, and their understrappers, whose interest too often it is to try to serve themselves at the expense of their harder working and more useful brethren, recommend still further reductions in this ill-fated branch of the Service; and it is apprehended that surgeons in India will soon not have wherewithal to pay their subscriptions to 'their Fund,' the last and only dependence and stay of the widow and the orphan.

In proof of what I have stated above, the taking care of self, and that there is one exception at least to the poverty of the Indian medical profession, complained of by your correspondent, I would just instance the case of the late Secretary to the Medical Board at Madras. His interest with the late Governor, Sir Thomas Monro, is well known. Sir Thomas had him appointed Surgeon to the Nabob of the Carnatic, contrary to the wishes of his Highness, who gave the preference to a distinguished member of the profession, now on furlough. Sir Thomas's *stern sense* of justice never stood in the way of the system of partiality and favouritism, which he uniformly observed. Mr. M'Cabe, the senior officer of course, was kept by Sir Thomas four years, acting superintending, and even as superintending Surgeon, after his promotion at the Presidency,—the *locum tenens* of the Secretary who got the appointment on his promotion to a superintending Surgeoncy, Mr. M'Cabe being removed to an outstation to his great detriment and loss. The injuries which the late Secretary, and the late first member of the board, Mr. John Douglass White, have inflicted and entailed on the Service, in the prosecution and attainment of their own selfish ends, will long be severely felt and deplored,—in all probability, it is irremediable. Illiterate, ungenerous, greedy, and cunning men, can only serve themselves, and appear exalted, by injuring and depressing others. In short they recommend economy, to recommend themselves. *Omnis sibi melius malle esse quam alteri.*

It is notorious that, *since his accession to the Board*, the late Secretary has been the warmest advocate for economy and retrenchment in every case, *excepting his own*; for himself, he thought too much could not be done. On his promotion, and leaving the Board, he retained, in addition to his new appointment of superintending Surgeon at the Presidency; 1st, the Surgeoncy to the Nabob of the Carnatic, at one-half the salary of his predecessor in office; namely, 100*l.* per month: 2dly, the Inspector Generalship of Vaccination, which he had held, without once leaving the Presidency, for seven years; and, 3dly, the Secretaryship to the Medical Fund. These appointments are not underrated at 3,500

rupees per mensem. The Secretaryship to the fund may have been considered *infra dignitatem*; and, since he lost the Vaccination Inspector Generalship, this appointment (as was the case with former charges of his, the Medical charges of the Civil College, and the Court of Sudder Adawlut, at Madras,) has been abolished as superfluous and unnecessary; showing that it is not every one who can do the duty of a sinecure appointment with propriety and advantage to the Service.

The appointments heaped on Mr. Scott when Secretary to the Board, and the preference since shown to him at the expense of a senior of superior claims, remain to be accounted for. Where have they been deserved? At Nellore? *On field-service*? At the Mount? For his late report of cholera, written by some clever assistant-surgeons, whose assistance is unacknowledged or even hinted at? Or by his miserable grabbings and pretended savings in office?

It has long been expected that something would be done at home for the medical service in India, especially in what was most wanted in the way of a graduated scale of retiring pay or pensions of surgeons, proportioned to their respective lengths of service.

This was my first object of solicitude and inquiry, on my arrival in this country, and I learned, with more disappointment than surprise, that they were to be as follows:

‘Members of the Medical Boards in India to be permitted to retire, without reference to their length of service in the Board, on the pay of 600*l.* per annum in England, or, in India, on that of a Colonel on the retired list,’ being an addition of 100*l.* a-year to the former retired pay.

‘Superintending-surgeons of five years’ service, as such, may retire on the pay in England of 350*l.* per annum; after a shorter period of service, as such, on the former pay of 300*l.* a-year.

‘These grades to be permanent: and officers once promoted to them, are not to be posted as surgeons to regiments in case of absence on furlough to Europe.’

Surgeons and assistants remain *in statu quo*. These improvements, which may be reckoned final, are now before the Board of Control for its sanction. Let us see how the different periods of a surgeon’s services in India are valued by his *nonourable* employers, in regard to their final and only compensation, his pay on retirement.

For seventeen years’ service, pay of Captain, 191*l.* 12*s.* The next thirteen years are held to be of no value; for, after thirty years’ service, he has 191*l.* 12*s.* The next two years’ service, after promotion to a superintending surgeoncy, are reckoned worth 108*l.* 8*s.*, making his retiring pay 300*l.* a-year. Then, the next three

years are estimated at 50*l.* only, making 350*l.* a-year, after five years' service as superintending-surgeon, after which, or thirty-five years' service, the mere circumstance of promotion to the Board, without more ado, is held to be worth 250*l.*, the pay on retirement being now 600*l.* a-year.

It is quite true, that, had our Member gone out originally as a cadet, he would, after the period of service that brings a surgeon to the Board, have been entitled to retire on the pay of Lieutenant-Colonel-Commandant, 1100*l.* a-year, at the least. The Directors, are well aware that the unfortunate surgeon is to become the victim of disease, of the climate, or of old age, long before he can attain the requital held out for the termination of his labours. In this *improvement* they have balanced their account, with their usual justice and liberality. The reductions begun at Bombay, indicate the utter ruin of this branch of the Service in India. It is obvious that the above *boon*, or *improvement* as it is called, from home, will check promotion in India, by keeping superannuated officers in India, waiting for the 600*l.* per annum, not to be attained in less than forty years' service in India. No superintending surgeon will retire on the 300*l.*, or 350*l.*, when the very next step, without further service, if he wished to retire, would nearly double his retiring pay. And members of the Board, on account of the pay of office, and for want of inducements to return to Europe at their advanced time of life, inevitably, between 60 and 70 years, will all serve their four years at the Board. So that the junior superintending-surgeon, or the twelfth on the list, as three members of the Board go out by rotation every four years, will just take sixteen years in attaining his promotion to a seat in the Board. In this hanging on, the casualties in these grades must be numerous, and the saving to the Company in proportion, the successors to the defunct seniors being to share the same fate, the establishment being recruited by young aspirants from England, to die off long before they become chargeable to the Company. Of the above alterations, the Service in India will judge for itself. The conditions of this inadequate and ill-proportioned remuneration, are, as it is, nearly unattainable, and a very slight addition to the servitude, might admit of a still further show of liberality on the part of the executive, and enable the Company to get rid of the pensions of the higher grades of the Medical Branch of the Service in India altogether.

CHIRURGUS ALTER.

DODD AND CO.'S FIRE ENTINGUISHING BRANCH PIPE, FOR
FIRED SHIPS AT SEA OR IN HARBOUR.

THE following account of a highly useful invention, deserves to be made known in the remotest quarters of the globe ; and to many who see this Journal in the East, we know it will be peculiarly acceptable. We, therefore, give it a place in our pages.

‘ Of all the habitations of man, Ships, from their peculiar construction, being composed of highly inflammable materials, are most liable to destruction by fire, notwithstanding they are surrounded by waters of the exhaustless deep ; these waters, that should naturally offer the means of safety and of life, only mock the sufferings of the crew, and offer another medium of agony and of death. Such ever was the dreadful state of a fired ship at sea, when the fire had got but a little a-head, and caught the *under side of the beams and deck*, from the want of proper machinery to apply the surrounding water direct to the flames. It appears paradoxical, that, encompassed with ever-present water, a ship at sea should ever be destroyed by fire ; therefore it may be useful, although no language can paint it complete, or paint the helpless, hopeless wretchedness of the crew, to attempt describing the commencement and progress of a fired ship at sea, and the means hitherto employed to save vessel and crew. Fires are of more frequent occurrence on board vessels than the public imagine. they are sometimes instantly detected and suppressed, by knocking down a birth, or bed place, and applying wet blankets and a few buckets of water ; yet fires are often not discovered until the smoke and flame, issuing up the crevices of the hatchways, give the awful signal : a signal that, far from land, and on sea in which no open boat can live, destroys all subordination ; the confusion is dreadful ; the results require no comment. When the fire has got but a little a-head, a very few minutes or even moments fill the hold or close body of the vessel with smoke and suffocating effluvia, so that no person can go and live below, the flames naturally ascending rapidly, seize the top of the bulk-heads and under side of beams and deck. The hatchway is opened to get some water down ; but any person who goes below is instantly suffocated, as lately occurred in a fired vessel at Liverpool ; opening an hatchway is letting in atmospheric air to feed and increase the conflagration. All buckets are manned ; but it is beyond the power of man to throw water in an angular direction, even could he exist amid fire and smoke, nor can he throw it far. Soon, too soon, the crew are by the heat and deadly smell driven to the deck : each loath to choose of fixed yet double choice of death, fire or water. In vain they throw water down the hatchways ; the fire is *at a right angle from the hatchway*, and far beyond the range of water they can give ; nor can they give much, if a heavy sea be roll-

ing. Next and rapidly the deck becomes too hot for the soles of human feet to tread ; this was the case on board the *Abeona*, that lost one hundred and twelve lives. Soon the flames ascend up the hatchway, fire the rigging, the sails, the masts, and light the men to the approach of death. Ships of war, East India ships, and very few others, in these trying cases, use the old fire extinguishing engine ; scarcely any other vessels have even such engines : the branch or delivering pipe to all these common engines is a *straight pipe*, and can send the water *down* to *part only* of the *under deck* ; thus the spreading calamity is increased until no numbers or courage can check the fiery fiend : as well could one drop of morning dew extinguish Mount Etna's flames ; yet, at this awful crisis, when even hope sinks to despair, the ordinary fire-engine, with the Patent Branch Pipe addition, would save the hapless crew and vessel. So useless are the present fire extinguishing engines deemed in ships of war, that they are merely considered fit to wet the sails in fine weather, and are in general stowed below. With the exception of his Majesty's vessels, and those of the East India Company, although there are fourteen thousand vessels registered at Lloyd's, not one vessel out of each two hundred has even a common fire extinguishing engine of any description on board, although their utility in some cases is unquestionable.

Two steam-vessels belonging to the General Steam Navigation Company were recently fired, but happily being in harbour, with prompt assistance rendered, and expensive but needful mutilation incurred, these fires were suppressed. Had the same occurred at sea, when crowded with passengers, from the unavoidable confusion, the sequel would have been fatal. All steam vessels are peculiarly liable to being fired. Even the coal has often spontaneous ignition arising from the presence of pyrites. The Margate steam vessel, *Regent*, was totally destroyed by fire off Whitstable, and the passengers escaped almost by a miracle. The destruction of steam vessels in America, with great loss of lives, has been surprisingly extensive. There can now be no apology for risking the lives of three or four hundred passengers, except murderous parsimony, as the largest of the Patent Branch Pipes costs only 25*l.*, which will be *saved* in Insurance. All passengers are aware they are liable to be drowned ; and when they embark should see that on board is the apparatus to prevent their being burnt to death. One chance is quite enough to satisfy the bravest of the brave.

It is not requisite to have a common fire extinguishing engine on board. The Patentee recommends that the head-pumps (the latter at option, from the *upper* deck being connected with the sea) be converted into force pumps : these will always be *upon deck*, and *instantly available*. This plan can be so cheaply accomplished, that, to every ship that now uses a land fire extinguishing engine, there will be an *actual saving of expense*.

By extracts from Lloyd's Registers, it is proved, that eighty-one ships have been *ascertained* to have been destroyed by fire, and eighty ships missing since 1819; most of the missing are supposed to have shared the fiery fate. It is well known to seamen, that a ship may be totally dismasted, roll about, and survive the worst of weather. Any sailor would rather trust himself in a dismasted than a fired vessel. Even ships of the line have been destroyed by accidental fire; one was commanded by a brother of the present Speaker of the House of Commons. In a similar way, in 1803, the East India Company lost five vessels, and immense property. It is needless to dwell on the recent loss of the *Kent*, the *Royal George*, and the *Tanjour*; these events are too painfully fresh in public memory.

All other branch pipes are *straight*, and will only play the water in a straight direction. The distinguishing merits of the Patent Pipes are—that the operator being *upon deck*, the beams and under side of which deck may be burning, he can direct a jet of water to any *unseen* part of a ship or house, such part being excluded from his view by decks, bulk-heads, or partitions,—he can operate in any required direction, upward, downward, horizontally and obliquely. By playing upward, the decks are cooled, and, minus the little water converted into steam, the remainder falls down, like rain, in torrents, and *will extinguish any fire below*.

It is a fact worthy of notice, that the greater the fire the more rapid is its extinguishment, as, in proportion to the extent of the fire, so is the volume of generated steam; where abundant steam is present, the most raging fire soon becomes absent.

The patent plan does not require the removal of a single hatch, which would let in air and encourage the fire, the carpenter merely drills a hole in *any part* of the deck, the patent branch pipe is therein inserted, the hose attached, the force pumps worked, and hope realised. The whole is a transaction of but a few seconds.

The following testimonial may give satisfaction to the friends of suffering humanity:

Extract from the Deptford Officers' Report to the Navy Board. 14th of July, 1826:

'As the peculiarity of the principle of Mr. Dodd's Patent Branch Pipe for extinguishing of Fire, is to throw water *in any direction*, or such directions *below as cannot be effected by the usual Branch Pipe*, it was not deemed necessary to ignite any place merely for the purpose of its being extinguished. It was tried on board the *Hasty*, in Dock, and from the upper deck a jet of water was thrown to all parts of the Vessel below; even to the under side of the Deck.

'We trust your Honourable Board will not consider we are entering out of the line of duty, when we say we consider it a very meritorious contrivance.'

EAST INDIA FREE TRADE AND COLONISATION.

THE following Circular, with the annexed form of a General Petition, of which we understand it is the intention of the author to get copies signed in every town and county in England, is too important to be omitted in 'The Oriental Herald,' notwithstanding the previous appearance of the former in 'The Sphinx.' It will, no doubt, soon find a place in every public Journal in the kingdom :

The expiration of the East India Charter is fast approaching, and it is expedient for the public good, that part of the exclusive privileges of the Company, which could so beneficially be conceded, be abolished, and the right of Colonisation and a Free Trade to India and China established.

From the over population of Great Britain, thousands of well-educated and intelligent persons are compelled to seek employ in foreign climates ; thus depriving the country of the services of a numerous and highly useful part of the community. An immense surplus capital, finding no employment at home, is adventured upon rash and ruinous schemes, or squandered in loans to foreign Governments, who have no means to repay them. This, if allowed a vent in India and the islands in the Asiatic Sea, would find ample employment, and would insure innumerable benefits to the mother country. The productions of India, aided by British capital and exertion, would reduce the prices here, and would open new and extensive markets for our produce and manufactures : it would enable the British merchant to import teas for home consumption at one half the present prices, as is the case in New York and Hamburgh, and necessarily double the consumption, (some people think ten times ;) while the Charter stipulates that the Company shall supply them as cheap as is done in other countries.

	Prices in Hamburgh.		New York.		London.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Bohea.....	0	9½	0	8½	2	0
Congou.....	1	0	0	7½	2	6
Campoi.....	1	0½	1	0	3	6
Souchong.....	1	7	1	3½	3	4
Twankay.....	1	7	1	5	3	4
Hyson Shin....	1	7	1	5	3	3
Hyson.....	2	4	2	6	4	5

Sales without Duty.

Tea has never been cultivated in India, although it grows wild there ; and the soil and climate closely resemble those of China.

	s.		s.
Sugar Candy in India....	31	China.....	50
Cochineal.....	2	South America.....	12
Ginger, per cwt.....	20	West India.....	160
Coffee.....	35	Ditto ditto.....	81
		Arabian.....	150
* Indigo.....	10	Spanish.....	8

* The only article under the management of Europeans, till then, it was far inferior to that of Spain.

The consumption of tea is increasing every year. In 1823 the importation was 24,000,000 lbs., in 1826 it was 30,000,000 lbs., and in the year ending 5th January, 1828, 39,746,147 lbs. ; and, should a Free Trade be granted, in a few years the importation will probably be doubled.

We could then afford to supply foreign nations with the above-mentioned articles on better terms than they can import them themselves, as we would pay for them in manufactures, produce, and metals, direct by our own ships, which are now carried by them circuitously at a greater expense and additional charge for profit, &c. ; thus filling our bonding and other warehouses with goods of every description to make up assorted cargoes, furnishing our manufactories with the raw materials, viz. : wool, cotton, silk, hemp, &c., &c., &c., for which we are now tributary to other countries, supplying Europe with sugar, rum, coffee, tobacco, &c., &c., produced without slavery, and from the increased consumption without any injury to the West India Colonies, as they could not supply the extra demand, giving employment to at least 300 ships of 500 tons each, requiring several thousand seamen and fishermen, (who have so much increased in number since we have rivalled the Dutch in the herring fishery,) ship carpenters, joiners, rope and sail makers, smiths, copper and iron founders, &c., &c., &c.

A fine American ship of about 300 tons, and twenty-three men and boys, came in ballast from Holland, where she discharged a cargo of tea, &c., from Canton. She takes out in a trading voyage to call at Canton a cargo of iron, copper, tin, woollen, cotton, silk, and linen manufactured goods, and to pay for her former cargo, and to purchase at a return cargo of tea, &c., with which she is to come again to Holland. *This an English ship is not permitted to do.* (See *British Traveller*, Aug. 23.)

On the 8th October next, a million of pounds of tea will be sold at Rotterdam, and an application has been made to the Treasury for a license to import such tea into Great Britain and Ireland, (See 18 Geo. II. and 21 Geo. II.) on payment of an equalised duty correspondent with the duty payable by the East India Company, and still enable the dealer to purchase at one half the present charges of the Company.

It would increase the revenue more than four millions without requiring one additional officer to collect it, and at the same time decrease smuggling and stop tea by caravans.

When the war with Russia cut off our supplies of hemp, &c., from that country, India supplied us with these articles, as stated by Mr. Grant, in the House of Commons. Tobacco, rice, cotton, &c., will become articles of primary importance from the probable effect of the new American Tariff, and if produced by English industry in India, supplant the trade of America, as has already been done

in Indigo.* The free Colonisation of India would necessarily double the revenue of the East India Company from the Indian possessions, which would more than compensate for their present trade, and would give great additional value to the stock.

Our merchants have ample means now, which they had not when the original charter was granted, to carry on commerce with India and China; to give them time to prepare for embarking in such trade, not a moment is to be lost. A Committee is formed with power to add to their number; (for one of whom a seat will be provided in Parliament;) to apply to the Government for their determination as to the renewal of the Charter, and to enable them to make an arrangement immediately for Free Colonization and Free Trade, or failing in that, to oppose by petitions through each of the 658 representatives in Parliament, from every town and village in the kingdom, the renewal of the Charter upon the present principles, (excepting the sovereignty of the Company.) The former arguments against the Free Trade, &c., and which induced the Government to grant the late Charter, no longer exist—the quiet possession of 700 years by the Turks, proves that there is no danger of *revolt*; and in China our seamen would conduct themselves as *prudently* as the Americans, who are much greater favourites at Canton than the English emissaries from Leadenhall-street who are paid as supercargoes, &c., or 200,000*l.* per annum, while a similar duty is infinitely better done for the Americans by a Consul at 200*l.* per annum; and, strange to say, by this unjust monopoly in tea, 2,200,000*l.* in addition to this sum of 200,000*l.* is laid on the *consumer*.—Communications upon this subject have been entered into with Liverpool, Bristol, Glasgow, Manchester, and all the principal towns in the kingdom.

It is presumed, that every one who has sons or daughters, family or friends, to provide for, or a capital, to employ, will contribute to attain this important object of a place for emigration, free of expense from the public purse, and extending a knowledge of the Christian religion to 100,000,000 of British subjects.

Any information will be thankfully received or given by

FRANCIS FORTUNE,

August 25, 1828.

29, Lombard-street.

To the Right Honourable the _____ of the United Kingdom of
England and Ireland in Parliament assembled.

The humble Petition of the Inhabitants and other Persons
resident in the _____ in the County of

SHEWETH,—That your Petitioners contemplate the approaching

* Vide the speeches on the American Tariff, in the House of Commons, Friday, July 18th; also Mr. Whitmore's speech in the House, 15th May, 1827; the 'Edinburgh Review,' No. 78; 'Argus,' 7th July; and Pamphlets entitled 'Facts,' by R. Rickards, Esq.

expiration of the East India Charter with considerable *anxiety*, inasmuch as your Petitioners consider that a Free Trade with India is imperiously demanded for the public good.

That your Petitioners, relying on the wisdom of your Honourable House, confidently hope that no renewal of the Charter will be granted without an unequivocal exception in favour of Free Trade to India and China. Your Petitioners at the same time disclaim any intention on their part to encroach upon the sovereignty as vested in the Company by their present Charter.

That your Petitioners further submit to your Honourable House, that, by the establishment of such Free Trade, sugar, rum, tobacco, &c., would be obtained without employment of slaves, or any deterioration of the West India trade, by an increase of consumption. Emigration would increase tenfold, and capitalists would find an ample field for adventure, either in traffic or colonisation.

That the consumption of tea would be increased beyond measure, and consequently, the duties, whilst the cost to the consumer would be materially abated; and your Petitioners humbly conceive, that the *Imports* and *Exports* in other produce would increase in the same ratio.

GENERAL LETTER OF NEWS FROM MADRAS.

Madras, 4th March, 1828.

OUR Right Honourable Governor, Mr. Lushington, continues indefatigable in his attention to business, and seems to have inspired several of the departments under Government with the like spirit. Great and unwearied industry is exerted in the investigation of the various branches of expenditure, and every step adopted that is likely to lead to economy or public benefit. Several changes and removals have taken place amongst men in office, and more are talked of, as well as the projected annihilation of some establishments that are of little public utility. We have generally been accustomed to see a propensity in new Governors to increase their influence, and serve their favourites and friends by the creation of new offices and appointments; but a contrary line of conduct has been pursued by Mr. Lushington since his arrival.

The money subscribed for the relief of those who suffered shipwreck by the storm, in the beginning of December, has been distributed among them, and the accounts of it published. It must have been a very seasonable and welcome relief to many, and is highly creditable to the Society which afforded it. One of the ships that was driven out of the Roads at the time of the storm, the *Gunjava*, has never since been heard of; and, as three months have elapsed

since the storm, little hope is now entertained of her ever being again seen.

The Honourable Company's ships of the season returning home, carry a very considerable quantity of bullion on account of the Company: a million and a half sterling is said to have been already shipped from Bengal and Madras. And private individuals returning to England, in general now carry large sums in gold moharers, as it is understood to be the most advantageous mode of taking home capital; bills bearing a high premium, and the demand in England for articles of Indian produce very uncertain.

That sad scourge, the cholera morbus, still continues its ravages at different places in the interior, but has not appeared at Madras, except in some solitary instances. At different villages in Mysore, it has prevailed to a considerable extent, and different Native corps marching recently through that country, have lost numerous men and followers. At Wallajahbad and Arcot, it has also made its appearance; at the latter station, his Majesty's 13th Dragoons were quartered, and lost in a very short time upwards of twenty men by this disease, besides a great number of Native-followers. The epidemic appeared in rather an alarming degree amongst the Europeans for some days; nearly an hundred men were attacked, but fortunately medical aid was instantaneously applied, and very effectually; for very few casualties, comparatively speaking, occurred. The regiment has since been removed from the cantonment of Arcot to Arnee, a station in the neighbourhood, since reaching which the disease seems to have subsided.

Letters from Cananore mention several tiger cats, or rather tigresses, had appeared in that cantonment, in the beginning of this month. It is not stated what damage these *feline quadrupeds* committed; but report says, they terrified the ladies there from attending a ball that was prepared for them on the 4th of the month.

When our late ever-to-be-lamented Bishop visited this, in the beginning of 1826, it was generally known that he was not fully satisfied with some of the clergy, and his comments on some part of the conduct of our venerable archdeacon, were said to be of so unpleasant a nature as induced that Reverend Gentleman to form a resolution of returning to England forthwith; and the Reverend Mr. Robinson, the Bishop's chaplain, was named as likely to become Archdeacon of Madras; the sudden death, however, of our excellent Prelate, afforded our Archdeacon a respite of two years; and, although he had broken up his establishment, and sold all off with an intention of quitting India, he remained until the arrival in Calcutta of our present Bishop, when he deemed it prudent to go home; his intention of doing so was announced in the 'Government Gazette' of the 21st of February, and in the other papers of the Presidency, in the following terms:

‘The venerable Archdeacon Vaughan is about to return to England, after a ministry of upwards of thirty years. He purposes preaching his farewell sermon at St. George’s Church, on Sunday next.’

As might be expected from this notice, St. George’s Church was crowded to excess long before the usual hour of assembly on Sunday morning; *but, alas!* the frailty of human expectations! the Reverend Gentleman had found it more convenient to embark on board the Honourable Company’s ship, *Wellington*, Captain A. Chapman, the previous evening, than remain to gratify the flock over which he has so long presided as spiritual comforter; and, by the time that his audience expected to have been listening to his parting benedictions, he was snug in his cabin on the watery element.

The Archdeacon went off very quietly; and it was a mark of good sense he doing so. His character, as a preacher, was not beyond mediocrity; and, of his talents as a reasoner, no very high opinion was ever entertained. In the pulpit he sometimes thundered, but he seldom lightened. But few divines, after thirty years’ residence in India, can be expected to live well, preach well, and teach well; and it is questionable if any of those men on the ecclesiastical establishment of Fort St. George will ever arrive at that standing in the Service which the late Archdeacon attained.

The Reverend Mr. Roy, D. D., senior chaplain here, has been appointed to officiate as Archdeacon, *pro tempore*; but it is still expected the Reverend Mr. Robinson will be placed in the situation.

While on this subject, it may be mentioned, that there have, of late years, been several excellent men sent out here as chaplains, whose genuine piety, joined to their efforts in the cause of religion, bespeak the sincerity by which they were actuated; these men, in conjunction with the Branch of the Church Missionary Society established here, are likely, from their united efforts, to effect a greater degree of good amongst the Native population, by the systems of education they are adopting, and by the diffusion of science and general knowledge, than whole hosts of missionaries sent out from different Societies will ever effect, ‘as the latter, in general, instead of teaching a simple system of education, perplex their hearers with unintelligible doctrines, not expressly delivered in Scripture, but fabricated by the conceits, and passions, and prejudices, of man.

The Advocate-General of our Supreme Court, H. Compton, Esq., left this lately for Calcutta, where, it is said, he expects to fill the same situation as he held here: Mr. Norton, the Advocate-General at Bombay, comes here in room of Mr. Compton, and is succeeded by Mr. Bridgman, a barrister, from this court. Mr. Compton’s

abilities and knowledge have deservedly acquired him a large share of professional reputation, and having long been a practitioner at the Madras Bar he had many admirers; but, like all other public men, he has his enemies also, and there are not a few at the Presidency who make loud complaints of him; his character will not bear strictly calling him an *honest lawyer*, one who weighs the *cause* more than the *fee*, or who would rather be drunk than plead for injustice: his skill has been as often employed in *out-buffing*, as in supporting right; but this is so much in the common course that nobody blames him for it.

Mr. Compton's friends gave him a farewell dinner on Monday the 25th February, and his Native admirers favoured him with a flattering address, accompanied with a handsome silver vase.

The party assembled at the dinner was as respectable and numerous as could possibly be expected, and must have been very gratifying to him on whose account it took place. The Right Honourable the Governor, his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief, the Judges of the Supreme Court, and every other person of consequence, honoured the entertainment with their presence. The chair was filled by an old and highly respected gentleman of the Civil Service, and a great many good things were said, and several brilliant speeches delivered, as well as appropriate praise bestowed on those who conducted the arduous duties of the evening.

As to the dinner, every delicacy *in or out* of season was provided in great abundance, and of the wines it need only be said, that they were such as might have been expected, when we recollected who was officiating as clerk of the hamper; for his taste as to what is *edible* or *quenchable* is allowed to be excellent, and his experience great.

In our feasts here, plenty more frequently prevails than elegance: the tables, we may say, groan beneath the weight of hospitality; for delicacy of arrangement is here deemed less a perfection than substantial plenty. The solids are often heaped in such crowded abundance as might make a London fine lady faint, and the desert is not less plentiful than the dinner, consisting of fruits of every description, and all sorts of European, Indian, and Chinese preserves.

Towards the breaking up of the party given to Mr. Compton, a duett was very effectively sung by the Barrister and Attorney for paupers: it had for its burden '*the sweet procrastination of the law,*' and was loudly applauded by the company then remaining, consisting mostly of professional men.

ADDRESS TO MR. COMPTON.

WE have much pleasure in giving insertion to the subjoined Address to the Advocate-General, on the occasion of his departure from this Presidency, together with the learned Gentleman's reply at the time of its presentation.—*Madras Gazette*.

TO HERBERT COMPTON, ESQ., BARRISTER-AT-LAW, IN THE SUPREME COURT, AND HONOURABLE COMMISSIONER'S ADVOCATE-GENERAL, AT MADRAS.

SIR,—We, the undersigned inhabitants of Madras, in the belief that the disinterested, and, consequently, sincere approbation of those from whom you are about to depart, cannot but be acceptable to you, beg leave to offer you the assurance of the high regard, admiration, and respect, in which we hold your conduct and character, and to express our deep and unfeigned regret at your approaching departure.

Your long and brilliant career at this Presidency has been distinguished, not only by energy of mind and character, by unwearied assiduity, and by professional skill and ability, more than equal to the arduous labours imposed upon you, but by qualities of a higher and rarer description,—by sympathy with the distressed,—by a strong sense of justice and charity,—by a heart and mind capable of feeling and appreciating the sufferings of others,—and by a liberal spirit infinitely above the influence of mercenary advantages, when such considerations called for the influence of your heart in opposition to your interest.

Frequently have you compromised and conciliated those disputes which it would have been your interest to have promoted; and often have you lent your powerful influence and aid to rescue from misery or destruction those who lacked all means, save gratitude, of rewarding the exertion.

You carry away with you, Sir, from our shores, a higher recompense and reward than any we could offer,—a consciousness of rectitude and of having benefited your fellow-men. Nevertheless, it is but natural that a community so highly impressed with obligations to you, and with so much cause to be grateful, should be anxious to establish some permanent record of its gratitude, and in that sense we have to intreat your acceptance of a silver vase, bearing an inscription commemorative of the interest and objects of the present address, which are—to record an honourable testimonial of your exalted character and the high esteem in which your virtues as a man and professional talents are held by the community of Madras.

When you left this Presidency, in 1814, we expressed a hope, which has been fully realised, that you would return again among us. We now again indulge in an anticipation, and may it be equally verified! that, at no very distant period, you may once more come back, with still higher honours than those you have already obtained, and in an elevated situation, wherein you may not only continue to advocate justice, but be enabled to dispense it, with all the advantages of your experience,

integrity, and noble nature. We have the honour to be, with the greatest respect, Sir, your most obedient and faithful servants,

[*Here follow the signatures of one hundred and forty-one inhabitants of the Settlement.*]

Madras, 21st February, 1828.

After the Address had been read, Mr. Compton replied as follows :

GENTLEMEN,—When, on my departure from Madras, fourteen years ago, I was gratified by receiving a public assurance, from several respectable Natives, that I had conducted myself, professionally, so as to deserve a distinguished mark of their regard; and, when they then pointed to my appointment to fill the situation that I am now about to resign, I little expected that I should again return to this Presidency, or be favoured with that gratifying expression of *your* kindness now conveyed to me.

While I offer to you my most sincere thanks for the kind manner in which you have described my professional character and services, I am quite aware that your liberal feelings have induced you greatly to overrate what I have done, or have attempted to do: and, if opportunities have been afforded to me, more frequently than to others, of conducting proceedings in the Supreme Court to a successful result, or of otherwise terminating controversies satisfactorily,—these advantages may be chiefly ascribed to a confidence which I have acquired from having lived long among you, and to the knowledge which experience has given me of your habits, your usages, and your character.

From the period when I commenced my professional career, and during all the time that I have practised at Madras, I have endeavoured to mediate between, and to reconcile conflicting parties, and to perform my duty in a conscientious manner, according to the utmost of my ability. But in no other manner have I deserved the favourable expressions of commendation which you have conveyed to me.

Although I am about to quit Madras, perhaps for ever, I shall always reflect with satisfaction on the occasions that have enabled me to render myself useful to my Native friends, professionally, or otherwise; and I shall rejoice if any opportunity may hereafter be afforded whereby I may promote your interests, individually or collectively.

I conclude, by repeating my most grateful acknowledgments to you, and by assuring you that the testimonial of your kindness, which is to record the honour you have conferred on me, shall be carefully preserved and transmitted to my children, as a memento of the consideration in which you profess to hold their father.

ADDRESSES TO CAPTAIN CORBYN.

KNOWING, as we do, how well-merited are the following tributes to an able seaman and an excellent man, we have great pleasure in giving them a place in our pages. The fact of Captain Corbyn having, on the voyage preceding this, brought home from India the large number of fifty-six children, all in perfect health and condition; and, on the present occasion, conveyed seventy passengers, including twenty-six children, besides the servants, and received from all, the unequivocal testimony of their perfect satisfaction, speaks so strongly in his favour as to need no comment.

DEAR CAPTAIN CORBYN,—We, the lady passengers of your excellent ship the *Roberts*, beg thus to express our warmest thanks for your kind attention towards us during our long passage from India; and although your reputation there already stands so high, that any additional testimonial on our parts would seem altogether unnecessary (the more so as we cannot exceed the strong and handsome expression of their sentiments contained in the address from the ladies on the termination of your former voyage;) yet are we desirous of expressing our sense of your kind care of, and paternal solicitude for, the numerous little folks on board your ship on the present occasion also, confident that your anxiety to ensure their health, comfort, and safety, cannot be exceeded.

We most sincerely wish you a happy meeting with your family, hoping you will find them in perfect health; and, with the most cordial good wishes of us all for your future happiness and prosperity, believe us to remain, &c., your sincere and affectionate friends,

* Hester Maria Muston,
Anna Maria Davies,
M. S. Mouat.

F. H. Taylor,
Mary Ann Becher,

July 2, 1828.

On board the ship *Roberts*, July 1, 1828.

DEAR SIR,—We, the undersigned passengers from India, in the ship *Roberts*, under your command, are anxious, before we separate, to assure you of the satisfaction we have derived, during a voyage unusually protracted by light and contrary winds, from the excellence of the ship, and our just confidence in your care and judgment as a seaman.

We are also sensible of the liberality, kindness, and attention paid by you to our comforts, and the uniform care which you have manifested towards the children on board, (twenty-six in number,) all of whom have arrived in perfect health; and we therefore beg leave to express the united good-wishes for your health and future prosperity, with which we subscribe ourselves, dear Sir, your truly sincere friends,

Louis Denty,
M. A. Becher,
M. S. Mouat,
W. Vernon Jellard, Lieut.
16th lancers.
John Hayes, Bengal Civil
service.
R. Budd, Lieutenant,
14th foot.

Fred. Meade, Major his
Majesty's service.
A. M. Davis,
H. M. Muston,
C. Johnson, 11th light
dragoons.
D. D. C. Fernandez.
J. Harcourt, 11th dra-
goons.

F. H. Taylor,
H. F. Denty, Major,
Bengal army.
T. Reynell, Maj.-Gen.
his Majesty's service.
John Becher.
Edward Day, Lieut.-
Col. Bengal army.
Kennet, ditto ditto.

Oriental Herald, Vol. 18.

2 P

THE HONOURABLE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S ENTERTAINMENT TO
THE EARL OF AMHERST.

(From our own Reporter.)

ON the 6th of August, the East India Company gave a splendid dinner to the Earl of Amherst, on his Lordship's return from India, where he has for some time held the high office of Governor-General. The entertainment was held at the Albion Tavern, Aldersgate-street; and it is scarcely necessary to say, that every delicacy of the season was abundantly provided by Mr. Kaye, the proprietor of the tavern. The several courses were served up wholly on silver, and the general arrangement called forth frequent expressions of approbation from the company who were assembled to partake of the banquet.

It has been stated in the daily newspapers, that a portion of the Ministers were present at the dinner. This is not the fact, neither did, as is affirmed, Lord Melville, or Sir Henry Hardinge, address the company, on their healths being drank. Neither the one nor the other of these distinguished personages were present.

It is certainly somewhat remarkable, that not one of his Majesty's Ministers attended to give zest to the 'welcome-home dinner' to Lord Amherst, after the arduous duties his Lordship has been subjected to, during his residence in India. This is the more extraordinary, as it will be recollected, that on the occasion of the farewell dinner to Lord William Bentinck, on his departure for India, and, indeed, at all the appointments to Indian Governments recently conferred, some of the Ministry have been present at the Company's dinners given on the occasion.

At about half-past 6 o'clock in the evening the company began to arrive, dinner having been ordered at 7 o'clock. Soon after the hour last-mentioned dinner was announced, and Lord Amherst was ushered into the grand room of the tavern, where covers had been laid for about forty individuals.

Among the company we noticed the Earl of Plymouth, Sir George Bankes, Lord Ashley, Colonel Buley, W. Wigram, Esq., &c. &c. Of the Directors of the East India Company, there were present, the Hon. Hugh Lindsay, Charles Mills, Esq., C. E. Prescott, Esq., James Carnac, Esq., J. P. Muspratt, Esq., &c. &c.

William Astell, M. P., took the chair at about half-past 7 o'clock, having on his right hand the Earl of Amherst, and on his left the Earl of Plymouth. The Noble Earl first-mentioned looked extremely well, and was evidently much pleased at meeting so many of his old friends at the social board. Full justice having been done to the several costly viands set before the company, the cloth was removed and a desert was placed on the table, excelling almost any thing we have before seen, in variety and rarity, and the wines which were provided were those of the best vintages.

The first toast given from the Chair was 'The King,' after which followed in succession, 'The other branches of the Royal Family,' 'The army and the navy,' 'His Majesty's Ministers,' &c., &c.

The Honourable Chairman then demanded silence, and called upon every Honourable gentleman present to fill a bumper, being confident

that the toast he was about to propose, would be received not only with the greatest warmth, but with satisfaction. He was well aware that to the majority of the gentlemen whom he had now the honour of addressing, would recollect that between four and five years ago, a most distinguished and talented man, presided in the chair he had the honour that day to fill,—he meant Mr. Pattison. At that period the noble Earl, whom he now saw at his right hand, was on the eve of his departure from this country to take upon himself the important situation of Governor-General of India. On that occasion Mr. Pattison expressed his ardent wishes that the noble Lord would enjoy health and happiness, and that he would succeed in his important mission. To him (the Chairman) it was a matter of regret that Mr. Pattison was not now present to join with him in congratulating the noble Lord on the enjoyment of the most perfect health. (*Loud cries of hear, hear.*) The Honourable Chairman then proceeded. It was not at all expected at that period that the tranquillity, which prevailed throughout the dominions of the East India Company in India, would have been so soon succeeded by the cry of war. An unprovoked aggression, however, made it imperative that war should be commenced. That the East India Company were satisfied with the noble Earl for the means he had adopted to bring hostilities to a termination, was best proved by the fact, that the Directors had unanimously voted to Lord Amherst the most satisfactory reward they could give,—I mean their thanks for the zeal, activity, and promptness displayed, and the advantageous manner in which the war was brought to a conclusion. (*Cheers.*) The noble Lord had, indeed, a right to expect that such approbation should have been given him for having so successfully overthrown the aggressor in that unwarranted and unprincipled attack on the East India Company. To his Lordship it could not but have been another source of pride, to have learnt that his Sovereign was fully convinced of the important services rendered the Government of India by the noble Earl, and an elevation to a higher rank in the Peerage had gone hand in hand with the vote of thanks from the Direction. (*Cheers.*) To me, continued the Chairman, it is a source of much gratification to find the noble Earl return to this country after faithfully discharging the arduous duties he had had to fulfil to the East India Company and to the Crown, in the full enjoyment of health and happiness;—and, in conclusion, I shall propose, and I am sure I shall be most cordially seconded in this toast, ‘A long continuance of happiness and health to Earl Amherst.’

The toast was drank with considerable applause, which lasted for some minutes. Silence having been restored,

The Earl of Amherst then rose, and, evidently under considerable agitation, addressed the Company nearly as follows:—Before I attempt, Mr. Chairman and gentlemen, to execute the task which has been imposed upon me, and, to the best of my ability, to return thanks for the high compliment which has been pronounced on my exertions abroad, from the Chair, and in which the gentlemen around him have so cordially joined; I must express the deep sense of regret I feel at not seeing around me several individuals who, previous to my going to India, had given me their countenance and approbation. Many of the persons who then favoured me with their confidence, have now been either partially or for ever separated from the Board of the East India Company, by death or by sickness. An expression of regret on this head was uppermost in my mind when I rose to return thanks for the honour

just done me by the Chairman; and having stated, as briefly as possible, the feelings which are strongest in my mind, it now remains for me, on my first appearance, after my return from India, at your family table, to return my most sincere and warmest thanks for the manner in which the Chairman has proposed my health, and the cordial concurrence expressed in that toast by all present. It would be in the recollection of many I have now the honour of addressing, that, just previous to my departure for India, I promised to be a faithful and honest servant, and I now declare, I have, to the utmost of my power, done my best to be faithful to you. (*Much cheering.*) It is a source of great pride and satisfaction to me to find you thus kindly disposed towards me. It is true that on my arrival in India to undertake the high duties imposed on me, I found that the tranquillity of the country had been disturbed, and I took what I then considered the most prompt and necessary measures to bring the aggressor to a sense of his unwarrantable conduct. I then trusted, and now I feel assured, that my exertions have been deemed satisfactory. Accept my thanks for the kindness shown me this evening, and the only further request I have now to make is, that I may be permitted, most cordially to drink all your healths. (*Loud cheering.*)

The Chairman then called for another bumper, and proposed the health of 'Lord William Bentinck, and success to his Government in Calcutta,' which was drank with cordiality.

The next toast was 'Mr. Lushington and the Government of Madras,' after which, 'Sir John Malcolm and the Government of Bombay,' was given from the Chair.

Several other toasts were proposed from the Chair, without, however, any further remarks being made by the Chairman; and about ten o'clock the Earl of Amherst took his departure, and immediately afterwards Mr. Astell left the chair, and the company separated.

INDIAN DISHES.

AMONGST the advertisements in a former Number, notice was given of the introduction of certain Indian condiments into this country, by Messrs. Cooke and Co., of Hatton Garden; since which, specimens have been sent us for examination, on trial of which, we can conscientiously affirm, that the Curries prepared from Messrs. Cooke and Co.'s paste, are quite as good as those we were accustomed to eat while in India; and, from the excellence of the dishes that the Indian condiments are capable of producing, coupled with the cheapness with which rice is now to be had in this country, we think it probable that, at no distant period, curry and rice will become one of the national dishes of England. We are given to understand that there is in preparation for the press, by a medical gentleman from India, a work on Indian Cookery, in conjunction with a system of Indian Dietetics, of which we shall give due notice when it appears.

CIVIL AND MILITARY APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS, AND CHANGES IN INDIA.

[B. signifies Bombay—M. Madras—and C. Calcutta.]

- Abbott, H., Cadet, promoted to Ensign of Infantry.—C. Feb. 6.
 Anderson, P. C., Brev. Capt. and Lieut., 64th N. I., to be second in command of
 Mhairwarrah Loc. Bat., v. Swanston, dec.—C. Feb. 15.
 Brown, R., Mr., to be Third Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit
 for Division of Calcutta.—C. Feb. 14.
 Braddon, W., Mr., to be Fourth Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Cir-
 cuit for Division of Calcutta.—C. Feb. 14.
 Barlow, R., Mr., to be Judge and Magistrate of 24 Pergunnahs.—C. Feb. 14.
 Barlow, R. W., Mr., to be Register of Bhaugulpore, and Joint Magistrate stationed
 at Monghyr.—C. Feb. 14.
 Barwell, A. C., Mr., to be Salt Agent at Cuttack.—C. Feb. 14.
 Balgrave, C., Mr., to be Salt Agent at Jessore.—C. Feb. 14.
 Barlow, J. H., Mr., to be Collector of Etawah.—C. Feb. 14.
 Brown, S. S., Mr., to be Assistant to Commissioners at Dehlee.—C. Feb. 14.
 Benson, R., Capt., to officiate as Deputy Secretary to Government, in absence
 of Major Stuart, on sick furl.—C. Feb. 15.
 Brownlow, W., Lieut., 46th N. I., to be a Sub-Assistant Commissioner-General,
 v. Henderson, on furl.—C. Feb. 22.
 Boyd, M., Lieut.-Col. Com., removed from 65th to 46th N. I.—C. Feb. 9.
 Bigge, J. R., Lieut.-Interp. and Quarter Master, 3d N. I., permitted to resign.
 —C. Feb. 9.
 Bannerman, R. H., Esq., to be Jun. Dep. Sec. to Board of Revenue.—M. March 4.
 Brice, J. P., Cadet, prom. to Ens., and appointed to 16th N. I.—M. Feb. 22.
 Brooking, S., Mr., admitted Assistant-Surgeon, and appointed Under-Govern-
 ment-Surgeon at Poonaallee.—M. Feb. 26.
 Brice, H. S., Assist.-Surg., removed from 42d to 33d N. I.—M. Feb. 13.
 Curtis, J., Mr., to be Fifth Judge of Provincial Courts of Appeal and Circuit for
 Division of Calcutta.—C. Feb. 21.
 Coxton, W., Lieut.-Col. Com. 46th N. I., to be Brigadier on Establishment, v.
 Richards, on furl.—C. Feb. 8.
 Castars, T., Ens., 29th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Irvine, dec.—C. Feb. 29.
 Carpenter, Brigadier, directed to take command of Benares Division, in the
 absence of Major Dirk.—C. Feb. 9.
 Croxton, W., Lieut.-Col. Comm., removed from 46th to 21st N. I.—C. Feb. 9.
 Corfield, J., Lieut., 1st N. I., returned to duty.—C. Feb. 9.
 Cherry, A. J., Esq., to be Dep. Tamil Translator to Government.—M. March 4.
 Coningham, H., Lieut. 4th Light Cavalry, to act as Riding Master.—M. Feb. 12.
 Chinnery, W. C., Lieut. 44th N. I., to be Adj., v. Miller, on furl.—M. Feb. 26.
 Chippendale, S., Assist.-Surg., removed from 33d to 39th N. I.—M. Feb. 13.
 Campbell, H., Assist.-Surg. on furl. to Europe, for health.—M. Feb. 12.
 Dysart, G., Cadet, prom. to Ensign of Infantry.—C. Feb. 6.
 Duncan, A., Lieut.-Col. Com. 53d N. I., to be Brigadier on Establishment, v.
 Vanrenen, resigned.—C. Feb. 8.
 Dougan, R. F., Lieut. 10th Light Cavalry, to command 2d Light Cavalry, v.
 Gardner, resigned.—C. Feb. 14.
 Dyke, G. H., Lieut. of Artillery, to be Deputy-Commissioner, v. Paton, removed
 to Political Department.—C. Feb. 22.
 Dickson, R. L., Major, app. to the charge of 15th N. I. at Delhi.—C. Feb. 29.
 Dwyer, H., Capt., 42d N. I. to do duty with European Convalescents proceeding
 from Cawnpore.—C. Feb. 29.

- Dalyell, T., Lieut. 42d N. I., to act as Interpreter and Quarter-Master in absence of Lieut.-Jackson.—C. Feb. 29.
- Dick, Maj.-Gen., removed to Benares Division of Army.—C. Feb. 9.
- Drysdale, J., Major 50th N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—C. Feb. 1.
- Du Vernet, J. S., Ens. 24th N. I., to be Assistant Under-Deputy-Surveyor-Gen.—M. Feb. 5.
- Deas, W. P., Lieut. 6th Light Cavalry, to act as Riding Master.—M. Feb. 12.
- Euxatt, W., Lieut., 54th N. I., to be Captain of a Company, v. Young, promot.—C. Feb. 29.
- Erskine, J. F., Ens., to do duty with 59th N. I.—C. Feb. 9.
- Everest, C. E., Surgeon, on furl. to Europe.—C. Feb. 19.
- Forsyth, John, Assist.-Surg., removed from medical duties of Political Agency at Mundlaur to those of Bowpawar.—C. Feb. 1.
- Freese, Arthur, Esq., to be an additional Sub Collector and Joint Magistrate of Cuddapah.—M. March 4.
- Farran, Charles, Lieut.-Col., 14th N. I., to command Nagpore Subsid. Force, v. Pollock, resigned.—M. Feb. 22.
- Groute, R., Mr., to be Assistant to Magistrate and to Collector of Northern Division of Moradabad.—C. Feb. 11.
- Gardner, W. L., Lieut. Colonel, Comm. 2d Local Horse, permitted to resign.—C. Feb. 15.
- Gregory, W., Capt., prom. from 2d to 1st. class of Deputy Assist.-Commis.-Gen.—C. Feb. 22.
- Go dingham, J., Esq., to be a Sub-Collector and Joint Magistrate of Tanjore.—M. March 4.
- Gibbon, R., Surg., tem. from 3d Light Cav. to 29th N. I.—M. Feb. 13.
- Gwynne, J., Major, 43d N. I., returned to duty.—M. Feb. 19.
- Harvey, J. J., to be Register of Midnapore, and Joint Magistrate stationed at Nughawan.—C. Feb. 7.
- Hare, W., Mr., to be Assist. to Magis. and to Collector of city and district of Dacca.—C. Feb. 8.
- Hardy, Abraham, Capt., 56th N. I., to be Major v. Wrottesley, prom.—C. Feb. 1.
- Hutchinson, James, Assist. Surg., posted to civil station of Gyah v. Henderson, prom.—C. Feb. 22.
- Harrington, Cornet, posted to 3d Light Cav.—C. Feb. 4.
- Hodges, C. W., Lieut., 5th Light Cav., to be Captain of a Troop, v. Burgess, deceased.—C. Feb. 26.
- Hamilton, P. S., Cornet, 5th L. Cav., to be Lieut. v. Hodges, prom.—C. Feb. 29.
- Hart, T. B., Assist.-Surg., directed to join and do duty with H. M.'s 16th Lancers, v. Spencer.—C. Feb. 29.
- Hayley, Surgeon, app. to 68th N. I.—C. Feb. 9.
- Heynes, C. S., Assist. Surg., on furlough to Europe for health.—C. Feb. 1.
- Hervey, A., Capt., 65th N. I., on furlough to Europe.—C. Feb. 9.
- Harrington, J. C., Lieut.-Col., 22d N. I., on furlough to Europe.—C. Feb. 19.
- Hall, J. W., Capt., 14th N. I., on furlough to Penang.—C. Feb. 19.
- Hargrave, E. R., Esq., to be Cashier to Government Bank.—M. Feb. 29.
- Henderson, D., Surg., his services placed at the disposal of the Resident at Travancore.—M. Feb. 22.
- Harding, G., Mr., admitted Assist.-Surg., and app. Under Garr.-Surg. of Fort St. George.—M. Feb. 28.
- Henderson, P., Lieut. Col., posted to 46th N. I.—M. Feb. 28.
- Jones, N., Lieut., 57th N. I., to resume his duties as Assist. Execut. Officer of 18th or Dacca div. of Public Works.—C. Feb. 22.
- Jackson, G. H., Lieut., 42d N. I., directed to do duty with the Detach. of European Convalescents proceeding from Cawnpore.—C. Feb. 29.
- Jones, W. W., Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quar.-mast. to 3d N. I.—C. Feb. 9.
- Jervis, John, Capt., 5th N. I., returned to duty.—C. Feb. 4.

- Jones, R. E., Ens., 25th N. I., on furlough to Europe for health.—C. Feb. 19.
 Jones, John, Lieut., 1st Light Cav., to act as Riding Master.—M. Feb. 12.
- Kinleside, R. R., Cadet, prom. to 2d Lieut. of Artil.—C. Feb. 1.
 Key, A. M., Lieut., 9th Light Cav., on furlough to Europe.—C. Feb. 19.
- Lawrence, E., Capt., Superintend. of Family Money, and Paymas. of Pensions, in Oude, to officiate as Assist. Sec. to Government in Milit. Depart., in absence of Major Stuart on sick furlough.—C. Feb. 15.
 Lougham, J. M., posted to 10th Light Cavalry.—C. Feb. 22.
 Lindsay, Cornet, posted to 3d Light Cavalry.—C. Feb. 4.
 Lawrence, H., Brev.-Capt., 67th N. I., on furl. to Europe for health.—C. Feb. 6.
 Leicester, C. B., Lieut., 34th N. I., on furl. to New South Wales.—C. Feb. 19.
- Moore, H., Mr., to be Judge of Zillah Nuddeah.—C. Feb. 21.
 Marten, T. P., Mr., to be Register of City Court of Moorshedabad.—C. Feb. 21.
 Middleton, J. F., Ens. 32d N. I., to be Lieut., v. Pye, prom.—C. Feb. 1.
 Mackenzie, H., Ens. 56th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Walter, prom.—C. Feb. 1.
 Macdougall, A., Ens. 5th Extra N. I., to be Lieut., v. Dunlop, dec.—C. Feb. 15.
 Macdougall, J. P., Lieut., Sub-Assistant, to be a Deputy Assistant-Commissary-General of 2d Class.—C. Feb. 22.
 Mee, G. A., Lieut. 58th N. I., to be Adj., v. Sargent, prom.—C. Feb. 29.
 Maule, W. M., Ens., 11th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Feb. 1.
 Morgan, F. T., Assist. on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Feb. 1.
 Mackintosh, H., Lieut. 43d N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Feb. 6.
 Miller, W. A., Lieut. 4th Madras N. I., on furl. for health.—C. Feb. 9.
 Mackenzie, R. Capt. 15th N. I., on furl. to Eur.—C. Feb. 19.
 Matland, R. A., Esq., to be Treasurer and Secretary to Government Bank.—M. Feb. 29.
- Morland, H., Lieut. 27th N. I., to be an Assistant Under Deputy Surveyor-Gen.—M. Feb. 12.
- McLeod, Alex., Lieut. 4th Lt. Cav. to act as Riding Master.—M. Feb. 12.
 Milnes, W., Lieut., to act as Riding Master to the Governor's Body Guard.—M. Feb. 12.
- Macauley, Colin, Cadet, prom. to Ens., and appointed to do duty with 16th N. I.—M. Feb. 22.
- Martin, Edw., Ens., posted to 24th N. I.—M. Feb. 13.
- Miller, W. A., Lieut. 4th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—Feb. 26.
- Napier, Alex., Ens. 58th N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Feb. 19.
- Nugent, W. G., to resume his duties as Acting Superintending Engineer in Mysore.—M. Feb. 15.
- Pringle, D., Mr., to be Second Registrar of Bangalore.—C. Feb. 14.
- Poole, Charles, Lieut.-Col. 56th N. I., to be Col., v. Logie, dec.—C. Feb. 1.
- Pye, John, Lieut. 32d N. I., to be Captain of a Company, v. Swanston, deceased.—C. Feb. 1.
- Perkett, Capt., app. to charge of European Invalids of H. C.'s service, under orders of embarkation.—C. Feb. 8.
- Pearson, J. T., Assistant Surgeon, posted to Civil Station of Midnapore, v. Hutchinson.—C. Feb. 22.
- Price, Brig.-Gen., tem. to Dinapore division of Army.—C. Feb. 9.
- Pennefather, R. P., Lieut., to officiate as Interp. and Quar.-Mast. to 3d Lt. Cav., in absence of Lieut. Trevor.—C. Feb. 9.
- Paterson, J. J., Surgeon, on furl. to Eur.—C. Feb. 19.
- Provan, D., Surgeon on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Feb. 12.
- Pasmore, J. Lieut., Pension Estab., on furl. to Eur. for health.—M. Feb. 12.
- Russell, H. P., to be Magist. and Collector of Jungle Mehault.—C. Feb. 14.
- Read, M., Mr., to be Assistant to Magistrate and Collector of Bheerbhoom.—C. Feb. 21.
- Ricketts, H., Mr., to be Collector and Joint Magistrate of Balasore.—C. Feb. 14.

- Rice, J., Ens. 44th N. I., to be Lieut., v. Fanworth, res.—C. Feb. 1.
- Raleigh, E. W. W., Assistant-Surgeon, appointed to Medical duties of Calcutta Native Militia, and Assist. to Superintend. of Eye Infirmary.—C. Feb. 22.
- Ramsay, J., Ens. 23d N. I., to act as Adjutant to 23d N. I., during absence of Lieut. Holmes.—C. Feb. 29.
- Ralfe, H., Capt., Bengal Artill., on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Feb. 9.
- Ramsay, T., Ens. 32d N. I., on furl. to Eur. for health.—C. Feb. 19.
- Robson, F. A., Esq., to be Judge and Criminal Judge of Zillah of Guntoor.—M. Feb. 29.
- Richmond, J., Assistant-Surgeon, appointed to do duty with H. M.'s 13th Lt. Dragoons.—M. Feb. 12.
- Rose, John, Cornet, 3d Lt. Cav., to act as Riding Master.—M. Feb. 12.
- Rattray, J., Lieut. to be Quarter-Master, Interpreter, and Paymaster, v. Chinerny.—M. Feb. 22.
- Shaw, D., Ensign 54th N. I., to be Lieut. vice Ewart prom.—C. Feb. 29.
- Spencer, W., Assistant-Surg., 16th Lancers, to be attached to Convalescent Depot of Europeans.—C. Feb. 29.
- Stuart, C., Major-Gen., removed from 21st to 65th N. I.—C. Feb. 9.
- Short, E. H., Cadet, prom. to Ens., and appointed to do duty with 3d or P. L. I.—M. Feb. 22.
- Stewart, F. P., Lieut., removed from 46th to 39th N. I.—M. Feb. 28.
- Strettell, D., Lieut., 20th N. I., on furl. to Europe.—M. Feb. 12.
- Taylor, James, Assistant-Surg., appointed to medical duties of civil station of Dacca, vice Harris, dec.—C. Feb. 1.
- Thomson, Geo., Capt. of Engineers, to be Exec Engineer of 8th or Rohilkund div. of Public Works, vice Davidson, rem.—C. Feb. 8.
- Trower, Jasper, Lieutenant, Artillery, to 1st Lieutenant, vice Kemp, deceased.—C. Feb. 15.
- Thomas, Mills, Major, to be Lieut.-Col. vice Vaughan, prom.—C. Feb. 29.
- Thompson, J., Capt. 68th N. I., to officiate as Major of Brigade in Arracan, vice Scott on furl.—C. Feb. 9.
- Trevor, R. S., Lieut., to act as Interp. and Quarter Master to 3d Light Cav., vice Tottenham, res.—C. Feb. 9.
- Todd, J. M., Assist.-Surg., returned to duty.—C. Feb. 6.
- Taylor, H., Lieut. 2d Light Cav., to act as Riding-Master.—M. Feb. 12.
- Thompson, A. P., Lieutenant, 8th Light Cavalry, to act as Riding-Master.—M. Feb. 12.
- Taylor, T. J., Lieut. 7th Light Cav., on furl. to Europe.—Feb. 15.
- Vaughan, John, Lieut.-Col., to be Lieut.-Col.-Commandant, vice Vanrenen, deceased.—C. Feb. 29.
- Wynch, P. M., Mr., to be Superintendant of Calcutta Lotteries.—C. Feb. 21.
- Wilkinson, W., Mr., to be Collec. of Cuttack.—C. Feb. 11.
- Wrottesley, H., Major, 56th N. I., to be Lieut.-Col., vice Poule, promoted.—C. Feb. 1.
- Walter, H., Lieut. 56th N. I., to be Captain of a Company, vice Hardey, prom.—C. Feb. 1.
- Wise, T. A., Mr., admitted Assist.-Surg.—C. Feb. 15.
- Woodward, D., Assistant-Surg., posted to Civil Station of Dacca, Jellalpoore, vice Taylor, rem. to Dacca.—C. Feb. 22.
- Webb, Geo., Surg., on furl. to Europe.—C. Feb. 9.
- Watkins, A., Capt. 7th Light Cav., to act as Riding-Master.—M. Feb. 12.
- Wight, R., Assist.-Surg., to be Garrison Assist.-Surg. at Negapatam, vice Campbell on furl. to Europe.—M. Feb. 19.
- Young, T., Capt. 54th N. I., to be a Major, vice Thomas, prom.—C. Feb. 29.

' General Orders by Government.

' Fort St. George, February 8, 1828.

'THE Honourable Court of Directors* having determined that not more than five Officers shall be simultaneously absent on staff employment, from any one corps, whether cavalry or infantry, the Right Honourable the Governor in Council is pleased to publish the following Regulations, to give effect to the orders of the Honourable Court, from this date :

' The number of regimental Captains that may be absent at one time from the same corps of the line, on staff, or other public permanent employ, is restricted to two ; and, to obviate all occasion for reference hereafter, it is directed, that when two Captains are absent from a corps in public situations, and a subaltern Officer of the same corps holding also a detached staff situation, be promoted to the rank of regimental Captain, the Officer so promoted shall be the individual to vacate his appointment, under the operation of these orders, which are to be *prospective*, and are not intended to affect the present incumbents of the grade of Captains, unless in such cases of emergency as his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief may bring to the notice of Government.

' The Right Honourable the Governor in Council has further determined, that, when an escort with a Resident at a foreign Court, or with a Political Agent, is furnished from troops of the line, or fixed establishment, the services of a distinct Officer, permanently appropriated to the command of such escort, are unnecessary. Under the circumstances above, when an escort or guard, furnished to a Resident or Political Agent, is relieved weekly from the regular troops, cantoned in the immediate vicinity of the Residency, no necessity will exist for detaching a European Officer from his corps, on a tour of duty with it ; but, when the garrison or cantonment from which the relief is effected, is so distant as to render a monthly, or longer tour of duty, more convenient than a weekly one, the Officer commanding the division, or the troops from which the escort is furnished, will consider it *to be his duty* to meet the wishes of the Resident or Political Agent for the uninterrupted employment of any regimental Officer (who has served three years with his corps) on such duty, whilst his regiment may continue in the division, or at the station giving the escort.

' The arrangements described in the foregoing paragraphs are prospective, and are not intended to affect Officers commanding permanent escorts composed of men unconnected with the regular service ; from this operation will also be exempted, escorts, whether composed of

* On the subject of this Order, we have received the following Letter from a Correspondent, who signs himself a Sepoy Subaltern, dated Trichunopoly, February 22, 1828. — ' That your Publication has done a great deal of good in various ways, no person at all acquainted with India will, for a moment, be in doubt. Some time ago you inserted, in one of your Numbers, a Letter from an Officer of the coast army, showing the very great deficiency of Officers present with some of the regiments on the Madras Establishment ; and, in the list of corps you then published, the deficiency was very apparent. The consequence of this publication has been an Order from the Court of Directors, to limit the number of Officers absent from their regiments on Staff employment to *five*. I annex the particulars as promulgated to the Madras Army, and remain, Sir, your obedient servant, '

' A SEPOY SUBALTERN.'

troops of the line, or otherwise, which may be furnished for missions or occasional embassies to foreign Courts, beyond the limits of India Proper.

‘By Order of the Right Honourable the Governor in Council.

(Signed) ‘R. CLIVE,
‘Chief Secretary.’

‘General Orders by his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief.

‘Head-Quarters, Choultry Plain, February 18, 1828.

‘At a General Court-Martial, held at Belgaum, on the 3d day of January, 1828, and continued, by adjournments, to the 29th of the same month, Lieutenant Josiah Eyles Deere, of his Majesty’s 45th regiment, was arraigned on the following charge, viz.:—“Charge preferred against Lieutenant Josiah Eyles Deere, of the 45th regiment—For placing himself, in a state of intoxication, at a gate of the Palace of Kolapoor, the 17th of October, 1827; and then, forgetful of the liberality which should distinguish a British officer towards a fallen Prince, using a demeanour and language highly insulting to the Rajah of that country and his people, particularly in applying to him the word, ‘*Banchoot*’ such conduct endangering the public peace, and being highly unbecoming the character of an officer and a gentleman, and to the prejudice of good order and military discipline.” Upon which charge the Court came to the following decision: “The Court having most maturely weighed and considered the whole of the evidence brought forward in support of the prosecution, as well as what the prisoner, Lieutenant J. E. Deere, of his Majesty’s 41st regiment hath urged in his defence, and the evidence in support thereof, is of opinion—

“Finding, That the prisoner is guilty of placing himself at a gate of the Palace of Kolapoor, on the 17th of October, 1828; and then, forgetful of the liberality which should distinguish a British officer towards a fallen Prince, using a demeanour and language highly insulting to the Rajah of that country and his people; particularly, in applying to him the word, ‘*Banchoot*’; such conduct endangering the public peace, and being highly unbecoming the character of an officer, and to the prejudice of good order and military discipline; but the Court is of opinion, that the prisoner is not guilty of any other part of the charge.”

“Sentence,—The Court having found the prisoner Guilty to the extent above stated, doth sentence him, the said Lieutenant J. E. Deere, of his Majesty’s 41st regiment, to lose two steps in his regiment, by being placed immediately below the two Lieutenants who at present stand next to him, and having his commission in his Majesty’s 41st regiment dated one day after the date of the regimental commission of Lieutenant John Smith of the same regiment.”

‘Approved and Confirmed,
(Signed) ‘G. T. WALKER,
‘Lieut.-General.

“The Court have recommended the prisoner on account of his bravery. This quality, unaccompanied with the generosity which should be the characteristic of the British soldier towards the unfortunate, can entitle him to little credit with the Lieutenant-General; and so little has the prisoner known of the value of the latter, that, not being simply reprimanded by the officer in command, for the gross conduct of

which he has been now convicted, but, as if doubting of a proper feeling existing elsewhere, he himself called for, and dared the sentence of a court-martial. It is necessary, then, when men are not endowed with proper feeling, that they be taught, at least, to respect public opinion. This sentence must be carried into execution ; and, though lenient, it is to be hoped it will be sufficient to mark what is expected from a British officer.

(Signed) "G. T. WALKER,
"Lieut.-General."

'The prisoner, Lieutenant Deere, is to be released from arrest, and will return to his duty.'

BIRTHS.

Braddon, the lady of Wm., Esq., of a daughter, at Allipore, Feb. 10.
Bremner, the lady of Lieut. Wm., 47th Reg., of a son, at Bellary, Feb. 18.
Clarke, the lady of Capt. Wm., of a daughter, at Calcutta, Feb. 24.
Carlew, the lady of C., Esq., Civ. Serv., of a daughter, at Furreedpore, March 5.
Dunlop, the lady of Major W., 52d N. I., of a daughter, at Calcutta, Feb. 11.
Dickens, the lady of Theodore, Esq., of a son, at Calcutta, Feb. 14.
Elphinstone, the lady of Lieut.-Col. C., Com. 50th Reg., of a daughter, at Belgaum, Feb. 16.
Fraser, the lady of S., Esq., Civil Service, of a son, at Chowringhee, March 1.
Fyvie, the wife of the Rev. Wm., of twin daughters, at Surat, Feb. 8.
Girdlestone, the lady of Capt. W. B., Com. 2d Bat. Nagpore Brigade, of a son, at Calcutta, Feb. 8.
Greville, the lady of Capt., H. M.'s 16th Lancers, and Brigade-Maj. to H. M.'s Forces, of a daughter, at Calcutta, Feb. 28.
Hodgeson, the lady of Capt. F., 35th N. I., of a son, at Meerut, March.
Huxham, the lady of W., Esq., of a daughter, at Quilon, Feb. 18.
M'Curdy, the lady of Capt. E. A., 27th Reg., of a daughter, at Trichinopoly, Feb. 17.
Minchin, the lady of J., Esq., of a daughter, at Chowringhee, March 7.
Newman, the lady of Capt. Charles, 5th N. I., of a son and heir, at Quilon, Feb. 8.
Proby, the lady of the Rev. J. C., chaplain, of a daughter, at Benares, Feb. 21.
Pattle, the lady of James, Esq., of a daughter, at Chowringhee, March 3.
Pringle, the lady of D., Esq., of a son, at Bhaugulpore, March 1.
Roome, the lady of Major, of a son, at Bhownay, Feb. 6.
Skipton, the lady of George, Esq., Superintendent-Surg., of a son, at Agra, Feb. 1.
Steer, the lady of C. W., Esq., of a daughter, at Patna, Feb. 4.
Seppings, the lady of J. M., Esq., of a daughter, at Calcutta, Feb. 8.
Sim, the lady of Major, Engineers, of a son, at Madras, Feb. 26.
Seton, the lady of David, Esq., of a son, at Colebah, Feb. 13.
Turnbull, the lady of P., Esq., of a son, at Calcutta, Feb. 5.
Wyle, the lady of Dr., of a son, at Nagpore, Feb. 2.
Williams, the lady of Capt. H. B., 3d Lt. Cav., at Arcot, Feb. 26.

MARRIAGES.

Butler, Captain, P., to Eliza, eldest daughter of S. Fabby, Esq., at Calcutta, Feb. 4.
Coles, J. R., Esq., to Mrs. Anna Ives, at Calcutta, Feb. 9.
Cockell, Capt. W. W., to Miss Eliza Bayson, at Calcutta, Feb. 26.
Eastman, Thomas, Esq., to Helen, eldest daughter of the late Captain William Gordon, of the country service, at Calcutta, March 1.

Eaton, Mr. C. W., Master Attendant at Coringa, to Eleanor Ann, eldest daughter of the late Mr. Luttrell, of Trinchinopoly, at Madras, March 3.
 Menzies, the Hon. Mr. Justice, Senior Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of the Colony, to Ann Helena, daughter of Commodore Christian, of the Royal Navy, at Simon's Bay, Cape of Good Hope, Feb. 28.
 Nutting, Lieut. Charles, 2d Europ. regt., to Miss Emily Stewart, at Hingalee, Feb. 15.
 Smith, Lieut.-Col., D. C., 37th N. I., to Mrs. Henrietta Smithwaite, at Madras, March 3.
 Spratt, Assist.-Apothecary, C., 3d Nat. Vet. Bat., to Miss M. Newcastle, at Chicacole, Feb. 11.
 Woodcock, W. H., Esq., Civil Service, to Harriott Mary, only daughter of Colin Shakspeare, Esq., at Calcutta, Feb. 13.
 Wyndham, Capt. H., Marines, to Mrs. Jane Vernon, at Bombay, Feb. 4.

DEATHS.

Avadal, S. E., Esq., aged 21, at Calcutta, Feb. 16.
 Dacre, Joseph, Esq., Third Judge of the Provin. Court of Appeal and Circuit, at the station at Chittoor, Feb. 22.
 Fermie, the lady of Capt. O. W., aged 56, at Calcutta, Feb. 19.
 Gillanders, Thomas, Esq., aged 59, at Calcutta, Feb. 23.
 M'George, Theophila Louisa, wife of Lieut. W. M'George, Adjutant of the Bareilly Prov. Batt, aged 22, at Bareilly, Feb. 24.
 Rutter, the lady of William, Esq., at Madras, Feb. 24.
 Spence, Ens. N. M., 24th Madras N. I., at Kolapoor, Feb. 12.
 Stell, David, Esq., son of George Stell, Esq., of Millden, Cape of Good Hope, Feb. 27.

SHIPPING INTELLIGENCE.

ARRIVALS FROM EASTERN PORTS.

Date. 1828.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Place of Depart.	Date. 1828.
July 28	Hastings ..	Harvey ..	Findlay ..	V. D. Land	Feb. 23
July 29	Knightsbridge	Ripley ..	Hesse ..	Bengal ..	Mar. 1
July 29	Start ..	John ..	Freeman ..	Mauritius	Apr. 3
July 30	Hastings ..	Frances Charlotte	Talbert ..	Madras ..	Mar. 18
July 30	Dartmouth	Olive Branch ..	Anderson ..	Cape ..	May 10
July 30	Downs ..	Ann Gray ..	— ..	South Seas	—
July 31	Plymouth ..	Royal George	Grant ..	Mauritius	Apr. 18
July 31	Clyde ..	Hind ..	Rodger ..	V. D. Land	Apr. 12
Aug. 1	Downs ..	Margaret ..	Ferguson ..	Bombay ..	Mar. 12
Aug. 1	Downs ..	Guardian ..	Sutherland	Bombay ..	Feb. 18
Aug. 2	Cork ..	Claremont ..	Mac Cauley	Bombay ..	Feb. 25
Aug. 2	Portsmouth	Sir Edwd. Paget	Geary ..	Bengal ..	Feb. 27
Aug. 5	Downs ..	Frances ..	Heard ..	Mauritius	Apr. 21
Aug. 7	Cowes ..	Burrell ..	Metcalf ..	Batavia ..	Mar. 18
Aug. 7	Downs ..	Hope ..	Harris ..	South Seas	Jan. 21
Aug. 7	Start ..	Thos. Grenville	Shea ..	Bengal ..	Mar. 14
Aug. 8	Downs ..	Alexander ..	Richardson	Ceylon ..	Apr. 6
Aug. 12	Liverpool ..	Nandi ..	Ramsay ..	Bengal ..	Mar. 9
Aug. 11	Start ..	Dryade ..	Kellork ..	Mauritius	Apr. 26
Aug. 20	Portsmouth	Elizabeth ..	Collins ..	N. S. Wales	Feb. 17
Aug. 20	Downs ..	Sarah & Elizabeth	David ..	South Seas	—
Aug. 21	Gravesend	Peace ..	Thomson ..	Madeira ..	July 23
Aug. 25	Downs ..	Magnolia ..	Eldridge ..	Batavia ..	Apr. 19
Aug. 25	Portsmouth	Wanderer ..	Hurst ..	Fernandez	June 5
Aug. 27	Liverpool	Perseverance	Brown ..	Bengal ..	Mar. 30

ARRIVALS IN EASTERN PORTS.

Date.	Port of Arrival.	Ship's Name.	Commander.	Port of Depart.
1828.				
March 2	Bombay	.. Gleniffer	.. Henning	.. Clyde
March 6	Bombay	.. Valleyfield	.. Johnson	.. London
March 9	Bombay	.. Tyne	.. Catgrave	.. London
March 10	Bengal	.. Norfolk	.. Redman	.. London
March 13	V. D. Land	.. Boddingtons	.. Taylor	.. London
March 14	Calcutta	.. Copernicus	.. Stevens	.. London
March 15	Calcutta	.. Circassian	.. Donthwaite	.. Lon on
March 20	Calcutta	.. Mary	.. Bamhor	.. Liverpool
March 23	Calcutta	.. Mary Ann	.. O'Brien	.. London
March 23	Calcutta	.. Clifton	.. Midford	.. Liverpool
March 24	Calcutta	.. Ontario	.. Willis	.. Liverpool

DEPARTURES FROM EUROPE.

Date.	Port of Depart.	Ship's Name.	Commander	Destination.
1828.				
July 21	Cork	.. Letitia	.. Clement	.. N. S. Wales
July 25	Liverpool	.. William Glen	.. Anderson	.. Bombay
July 28	Gravesend	.. Hippomenes	.. Ross	.. Batavia
July 31	Greenock	.. Hunter	.. Arthur	.. V. D. Land
Aug. 2	Liverpool	.. London	.. Hantley	.. Bengal
Aug. 2	Greenock	.. Simpson	.. Warner	.. Bombay
Aug. 6	Liverpool	.. James Grant	.. Inglis	.. Bengal
Aug. 6	Liverpool	.. Rithsdale	.. Christian	.. Bombay
Aug. 7	Liverpool	.. Ann	.. Fowler	.. Mauritius
Aug. 13	Downs	.. John Baggart	.. Shaw	.. Bengal
Aug. 13	Downs	.. Jupiter	.. Welley	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 13	Downs	.. Superior	.. Ormand	.. Mauritius
Aug. 13	Liverpool	.. Mary Ann	.. Landley	.. Bombay
Aug. 14	Portsmouth	.. Lang	.. Lark	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 11	Greenwich	.. Comet	.. Fraser	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 15	Downs	.. Vittoria	.. Smith	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 15	Downs	.. Lady MacNaghten	.. Faith	.. Bengal
Aug. 16	Leith	.. City of London	.. M'Kellar	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 19	Gravesend	.. George Canning	.. Raig	.. Bengal
Aug. 19	Downs	.. Samuel Brown	.. Reid	.. Mauritius
Aug. 19	Downs	.. Roslyn Castle	.. Duff	.. V. D. Land
Aug. 21	Plymouth	.. Childe Harold	.. West	.. Bombay
Aug. 23	Downs	.. Governor Ready	.. Young	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 23	Plymouth	.. Surry	.. Dacre	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 23	Downs	.. Africa	.. Skelton	.. Ceylon
Aug. 23	Downs	.. Harriet	.. Knaggs	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 24	Downs	.. Lady Rowena	.. Russell	.. V. D. Land
Aug. 25	Liverpool	.. Alice	.. Proditich	.. Singapore
Aug. 25	Downs	.. Patience	.. Matthews	.. Cape
Aug. 25	Gravesend	.. Clarkstone	.. ———	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 26	Liverpool	.. Hero	.. Fell	.. Bombay
Aug. 26	Portsmouth	.. Royal George	.. Embleton	.. N. S. Wales
Aug. 27	Portsmouth	.. Nautilus	.. Nash	.. China
Aug. 27	Downs	.. Protector	.. Waugh	.. Bengal

GENERAL LIST OF PASSENGERS.

PASSENGERS HOMEWARDS.

By the *John*, from Mauritius:—Lieut. Kelly, R. N.; David Thomson, Esq.; Messrs. W. Felfair, Gillan, Artus, Chardriollette, and Ledditt; Master Madge; Mesdames Artus and child, Monneron, Fourmond, Ledditt and two children.

By the *Sir Edward Paget*, from Bengal and Cape:—Lieut.-Col. G. Macgregor,

C.B., 59th foot; Capts. Campbell, 31st foot; J. Crawford, Bombay Marine; H. Lawrence, 67th N. I.; J. Douglas, 98th foot, and H. John, Cape Cav.; Lieut. John Miller, Madras Rifle Corps; the Right Hon. W. H. Leslie Melville, Hon. Comp.'s Civ. Ser.; Augustus Le Messurier, Esq., Barrister at Law; John Monteath, Esq., and John Manuel, Esq.; Mdes. Col. Macgregor, E. Hume, Capt. Grimes, G. M. Taylor, Capt. Stevenson and Monteath; Master A. Macgregor, and three Humes; Misses C. Macgregor, E. Woodley, E. Hume, Monteath and Stevens; Serjeants Armstrong and Monro.

By the *Guardian*, from Bombay:—Capt. T. R. Ferrell, Bombay Marines, and Lady; and Mrs. Sievwright.

By the *Frances Charlotte*, from Madras:—Capts. Taylor, 13th Drag.; and Nicholson, Royals; and Dr. Campbell, Hon. Comp.'s Service.

By the *William Harris*, from Ascension:—Capt. Langdon, R.N.; Mr. Foreman, late Surgeon of the Island; and Mrs. Col. Nicholls.

By the *Francois*, from the Mauritius:—Mr. Lester, from St. Helena.

By the *Thomas Grenville*, from Bengal:—Lieut. Col. Gilbert, 15th N. I.; Lieut. A. M. Key, Hon. Comp.'s 9th Cav.; D. Bryre, Esq. (died at sea, July 18); B. Roberts, Esq.; Dr. B. Macleod; Mdes. Col. Gillert, Roberts, Bryre, Macleod, Higgins, Thomas, (died at sea, June 14); Masters Macleod, H. Thompson, Higgins, Thomas, and McCann; Misses Bryre, C. Roberts, Macleod, C. Macleod, two Higgins, two Turnbells, two Wilkinsons, Methevon, and M. Thomas, (died at sea, June 15); ten servants and twenty-six invalids.

By the *Alexander*, from Ceylon:—Major Gen. Sir Hudson Lowe; Major Morris, 97th reg.; Capt. Crofton, 83d reg.; Lieut. De Laney; Ensign Cassidy; T. N. Carrington, Esq., Mdes. Carrington, and five children; Crofton and Cassidy; Morris, and five children; three servants, eleven invalids, two women, and three children.

By the *Elizabeth*, from N. S. Wales:—Captain Farlane; Dr. Evans, R.N.; Messrs. Paul, Aspinall, and two Wentworths; Mrs. Paul; Misses Wentworth. Ten steerage Passengers.

By the *Perseverance*, from Bengal:—Capt. Law, 38th reg.; Lieuts. Johnstone, 16th Lancers; and G. Johnstone, 16th reg.; John Russell, Esq.; M. Mackenzie; Mdes. Mackenzie, and four children; and Gilbert and one child. Three servants.

POSTSCRIPT.

We are still without any later news from India than that given in our last. Not a single ship has arrived from either Presidency of a later date than the intelligence before given. In the ensuing month, we shall, no doubt, have more of Indian news to communicate.

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Bound by

Bharati.

18, Patwarbagan Lane,

Date **27 FEB 1950**

Bound by

Bhurati.

18, Patwarbagan Lane,

Date **27 FEB 1950**

954.005/ORI/R/2



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